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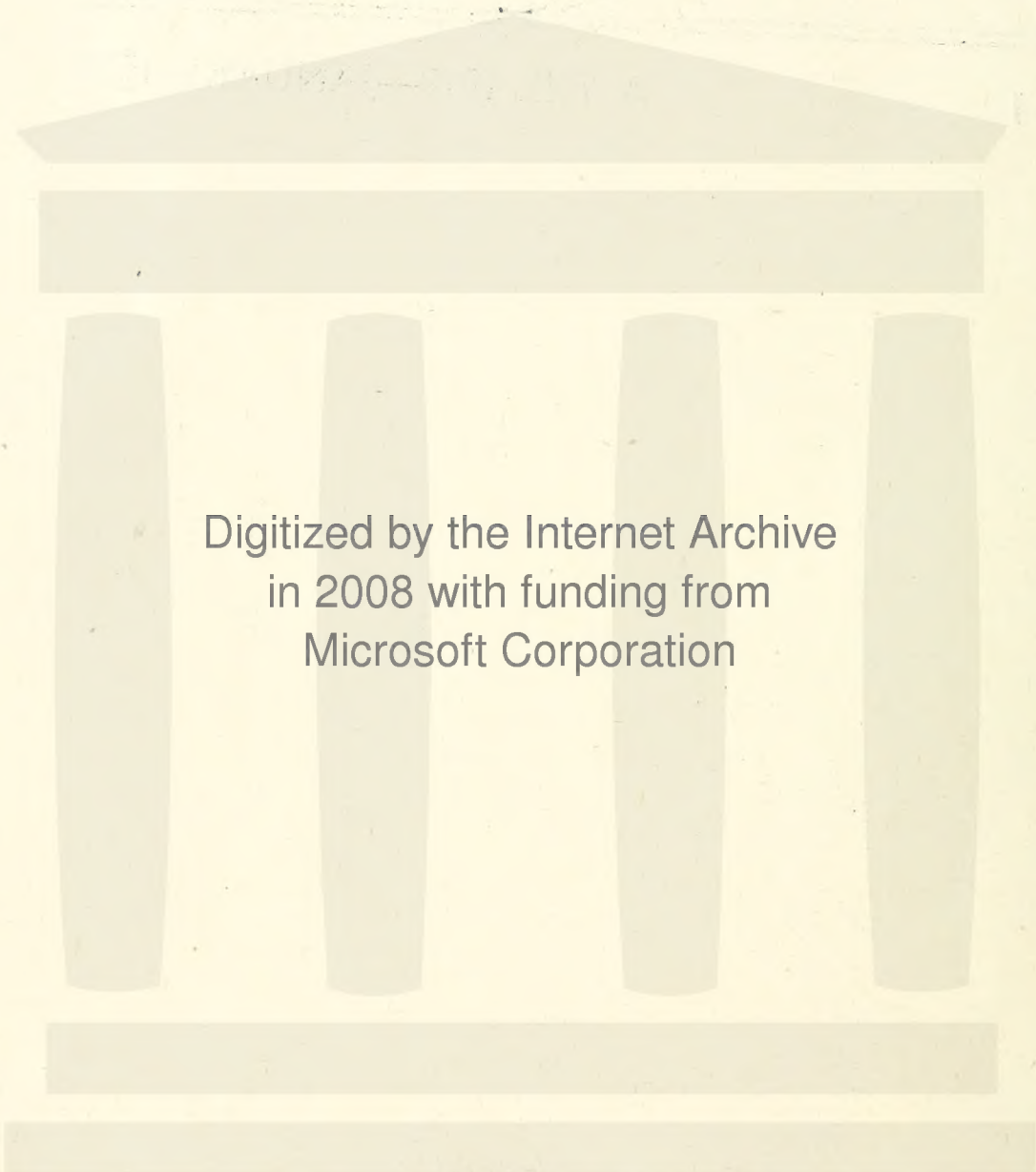

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THE MYSTERIOUS STRANGER

A Chapter in the history of Psychiatry in Canada

BY C. K. CLARKE, M.D.

THROUGH the kindness of Mr. Norman Burnette a rare volume of Canadiana has come into my possession. It is entitled "The Mysterious Stranger, or the Adventures of Henry More Smith". These adventures cover a period from Smith's first appearance in Windsor, N.S., in 1812, until his supposed confinement in the Toronto Gaol in 1836.

The little book contains about a hundred pages and is insignificant in appearance, but to a student in psychiatry is intensely interesting, both from the historical and medical standpoints, revealing as it does the credulity of the public, the heartlessness of the legal processes of the time, and painting a clinical picture that would be difficult to surpass.

The author, a delightful old gossip, was the gaoler of the Mysterious Stranger during the years 1814 and 1815, and presented the volume to the public, with the worthy object of warning it against the wiles of one who could, as he quaintly expressed it, "have in his arm the strength and power of a lion, and a mind filled with the subtlety, intention and depth of Satan". The book reveals only too clearly the attitude of the public towards the insane a hundred years ago, and incidentally illustrates the cruelty of laws which could not be styled otherwise than barbarous.

Henry More Smith, the subject of the sketch, apparently emigrated from England about 1812, and from what was eventually learned had shown signs of mental disease long before coming to Canada. He stated that he was a tailor by occupation but was in habit reticent, inoffensive, and deeply religious. At that time he was about twenty-two years of age, and our author finds all sorts of evidence of hypocrisy, deceit and

guile in More's character, but admits that he was such a genius that "he could execute anything well that he turned his attention to". His first escapade was at Mr. Bond's, where he made himself so popular that a Miss Bond fell in love with him and married him in spite of the protestations of her father. He left Bond's employ, and entered on a new line of business, combining the occupations of pedlar and tailor quite successfully, purchasing his supplies in Halifax, where a number of unaccountable and mysterious thefts were alarming the community. Articles of plate were missing from gentlemen's houses, silver watches disappeared and, among other things, three volumes of late Acts of Parliament were purloined—an unusual bait for the average thief, but Smith produced the missing volumes when a reward of three guineas was offered. He was at once suspected, but disappeared before a warrant could be issued—travelling by horseback. In an Eastern city he entered into an agreement with the Colonel of the 99th Regiment to supply him with a mate to a black horse. The Colonel advanced fifteen pounds to enable Smith to secure the animal he had selected and which he eventually stole. Smith was soon apprehended and placed in gaol where he behaved "with becoming propriety, turned his attention to the Bible and perused it with an air of much seriousness, as though the concerns of the unseen world engrossed all his thoughts".

About this time he showed symptoms of a severe cold, and although suffering great pain "submitted to his confinement without a murmur or complaint". He claimed that his side had been injured by the man who arrested him and who made a violent assault on him. His condition was, in a short time, so serious that it was apparent he had not many days to live, and a Rev. Mr. Scovil became deeply interested in him. Apparently he had a convulsion and said "it was a family infirmity and that many of his connections had died in that way". He was prepared for death, and the gaol authorities made arrangements for an inquest, also took an ante mortem statement. The patient made his will and Mr. Scovil left the gaol expecting to hear of the prisoner's death in a few hours. In order that he might die comfortably the clergyman's good wife sent a feather mattress to the gaol. Things progressed unfavourably and Smith becoming worse, was found "in the agonies of a fit almost expiring. He made an effort to speak and begged the attendant to run and heat a brick that was near and apply it to his feet, to give him one moment's relief while he was dying, for his feet were already cold and dead to his knees". The attendant did as he was asked, and returning in a few minutes "to his indescribable astonishment, and almost unwilling to believe the evidence of his senses, the dying man had disappeared and could not be found". Not only had he vanished but "he had not left a vestige of his movables behind him".

That evening Smith's ghost was said to have been seen by a Mr. Lyon, who said he had "seen it pass at a short distance without touching the ground". A reward of twenty dollars was offered for the apprehension of the escaped prisoner and the country was scoured far and wide. The escape was particularly embarrassing to the prison authorities as the trial had been set for a day near at hand. The gaoler was intensely annoyed at the turn of events and naively complained, "I felt myself not a little chagrined on reflecting on the circumstances in which I was placed. This feeling became heightened to a most painful degree when I came to understand by Mr. E. Jones, that the villain instead of escaping for his life, and getting out of my reach with all possible haste, had only travelled about ten miles the first night, and was seen lying on some straw before a barn the next morning, having lain there until twelve o'clock in the day". Having purloined a few articles he was hotly but unsuccessfully pursued. A farmer becoming suspicious of him thought "he must be some improper character, which idea was strengthened by the circumstances of its being a time of war. On his examination he answered with so much apparent simplicity that the Justice dismissed him".

When the Court opened the Attorney General arrived "with very unfavourable impressions on his mind", and generally speaking the gaol authorities were under grave suspicion as it was believed that the prisoner was a Freemason and his escape had been connived at.

The Court, having been deprived of the pleasure of trying the nimble Smith, amused itself by finding a Bill against the sheriff and jailer for negligence in suffering the prisoner to escape. Smith, in the meanwhile, was wandering about the country apparently without any definite and obvious plan of avoiding his pursuers. He stole a watch and some spoons, played the fiddle for a group of young folks at one place, and escaped detection by mere accident. It was stated that he assumed the character of the pursuant in quest of the thief, but our genial author does not prove this clearly although he claims to discover deep rascality in all Smith did. As a matter of fact, the prisoner escaped detection for a long time by doing exactly what it was supposed he would not do. Reading between the lines it is plainly apparent that the question of escape did not worry him particularly. He was apprehended at last on the probability of his being a deserter, and when taken before Hon. Judge Saunders promptly said that his name was Smith and admitted that he had escaped from gaol. On being asked how he effected his escape he said "The jailer opened the door and the priest prayed me out". At this point of the story Smith's spectacular career commences, and he began to make history with amazing rapidity.

His guards handcuffed and pinioned him, and tied him to the bar of a canoe in which they had to travel. Although thus trussed up he escaped with little difficulty.

Finding a large quantity of linens sprinkled and ready for ironing at a farm house he promptly stole them, as well as a pony to carry them, and set out for Fredericton. Here he made further history by invading the residence of the Attorney General himself, and helping himself to five top coats, three plaid cloaks and a number of comforters, tippets, etc. After concealing his useless booty he went to rest in a haystack and was again arrested as a deserter. When he was recognized as the notorious Henry More Smith, it was at once arranged to have him taken back to Kingston gaol. "Safety first" was the motto of the Sheriff of York County, and Smith was placed on board of a sloop, ornamented with an iron collar made of a flat bar of iron, an inch and a half wide, with a hinge and clasp fastened with a padlock. To the collar, which was put round his neck, was fastened an iron chain ten feet in length. "Thus prepared and his hands bound together with a pair of strong handcuffs", he began his return to the Kingston gaol, which he reached in due course. The gaoler and author, who is always shocked beyond measure at Smith's doings, moralizes as follows and innocently reveals something of the prisoner's mental attitude. "On his re-appearance in the old spot and among those who had ministered so feelingly to his comfort during the whole period of his affected illness, and whom he had so effectually hoaxed, it might have been expected that he would have betrayed some feeling or emotion, or that a transient blush of shame at least would have passed over his countenance; but ah! no: his conscience had long since become seared, and there was no sensibility within strong enough to give the slightest tint to his shame proof countenance. He appeared perfectly composed and as indifferent and insensible to all around him as though he were a statue of marble".

Smith was stripped, carefully searched, and placed in a room that was apparently as solid and strong as the Bastille. To make certainty sure his right leg was shackled, an iron chain provided, and this was fastened to the timber of the floor by a strong staple. As his wrists had been greatly inflamed by handcuffs they were left free. Smith behaved with the greatest gentleness for a time, but the gaoler felt worried about him and visited him suddenly one night, but found him apparently chained up as usual. He said to him, "Smith you have not got out yet". He answered, "No, not quite". Our author was not satisfied though and a careful examination of the bars revealed the fact that in an hour or so Smith would have escaped. On being asked what instruments he had used in cutting the bars he answered, "With this saw and file" handing the gaoler these tools. Where they came from was a mystery. A pair

of handcuffs of $\frac{7}{8}$ bolt iron were now added to the restraints, but by next day Smith "had got loose from all his irons", and had nearly escaped, having again cut through the bars. No tools could be discovered. The gaoler says "We next replaced all his chains and padlocks, put on him a pair of screw handcuffs which confined his hands close together, and thus left him". On the day following he had removed the handcuffs "because", he said, "they are so stiff that nobody could wear them". When a fine saw was finally discovered the gaoler decided to take no further chances, so had the whole place with the exception of the door, and a window, four or five inches, bricked up. The room was converted into a dungeon and the prisoner kept in absolute darkness, which was not entered unless by two to three men carrying candles.

Smith's insanity, which should have been apparent long before this, was aggravated by his cruel treatment, and he became violent and the authorities instructed the gaoler to the effect "you will be justified in any measures that you may find it necessary to adopt, that is, to prevent the prisoner's escape". Apparently Smith could not be held by the devices used so was provided with "steel fetters, case hardened, about ten inches long which were put on his legs, with chains from the middle, seven feet long which were stapled to the floor; also an iron collar about his neck, with a chain about eight feet long, stapled also to the floor in a direction opposite to the other: and also a chain from his fetters to the neck collar, with handcuffs bolted to the middle of this chain in such a manner as to prevent his hands from reaching his head or feet when standing, leaving it just possible for him to feed himself when sitting. All these irons and chains he received without discovering the least concern or regard".

The gaoler remarked "Now, Smith, I would advise you to be quiet after this, for if you are not, you will next have an iron band put round your body and stapled fast down to the floor". He very calmly replied "Old man, if you are not satisfied, you may put it on now. I do not regard it; if you will let my hands loose you may put on as much iron as you please. I care not for all your iron". In this situation he was left loaded with forty six pounds of fetters and chains and without anything to sit or lie on but the naked floor. As might be supposed he became maniacal; raved and roared, quoting scripture freely and calling on God to help him to confound his persecutors and tormentors. He became hoarse and exhausted in due course, and the weather having become cold he was furnished with a straw bed and blankets, but the blankets were almost immediately taken away as he attempted to commit suicide by strangulation. He next endeavoured to starve himself and then became quiet. On December 16th he broke the iron collar from his neck. On the 17th a chain was put about his neck and stapled

to the floor. "In this situation he remained secure and rather more quiet, yet with occasional shouting and screaming until January 15th. The weather was so bitterly cold that it was feared the prisoner would freeze to death and some of his fetters were removed. For this relief he displayed no sign of thankfulness, but became more noisy and troublesome, howling and screeching and making all manner of hideous noises entirely unlike the human voice, and tremendously loud, even beyond conception. In this manner he continued for five months, occasionally committing violence upon himself and breaking his chains during which period he could never be surprised into the utterance of one single word or articulate sound, and took no more notice of any person or thing, or of what was said to him than if he had been a dumb, senseless animal, yet performing many curious and astounding actions". His New Testament, which he always kept by him, was turned down at the passage, "And I, brethren could not speak unto you". It was supposed that he might freeze to death during the intense cold of January, but he survived, and in February became extremely noisy so the gaoler added a few more chains to the collection.

Two visitors came, but he would not speak to them, and the gaoler became convinced that the prisoner would go to the gallows "without speaking a word or changing his countenance".

Having broken his chains on several occasions, the inventive genius of the gaoler was once more brought to the fore, and Smith was provided with a chain from his feet around his neck, stapled to the floor. The handcuffs were secured to the middle of this chain. The collar was made of a flat bar of iron an inch and a half wide with the edge rounded. Smith twisted this with the greatest of ease and the naive author says "his wrists were frequently much swelled and very sore, yet he appeared as insensible as if he had in reality been a furious maniac".

The gaoler satisfies himself, beyond doubt, that the insanity was feigned and gives as proof of the fact that Smith produced an effigy or likeness of his wife sorrowing for her husband. This, although made out of the roughest materials "when viewed with the light of the candles, was really astonishing and had a kind of magical power in drawing out the sympathies of every one who witnessed it. He continued noisy and troublesome until the 5th of March when we took his irons off and caused him to wash himself and comb his hair which had not been cut since he was put in gaol; neither had his beard been shaved. On receiving a piece of soap for washing he eat a part of it and used the rest".

Smith continued to amuse himself by breaking his chains and hanging them about the room. When visited on one occasion the chains were in pieces, "his hands, his face and his clothes were all bloody, and his whole appearance presented that of an infuriated madman". No matter how

they fastened him, even with his neck to the floor he was able to free himself in a few hours. The poor gaoler was at his wits end, and concluded that Smith possessed some "unknown mysterious power". In order to test this he added a large timber chain of a size used in hauling four or five logs to the mill at once. This was no impediment to Smith, who now seems to have entered into the sport with zest, and when free from shackles began to create straw figures of wonderful ingenuity. At night he shouted and hallooed and beat the floor with his chains.

On April 30th Smith was informed that his trial would take place on May 4th, but he paid no attention to the statement "no more than if he could neither see nor hear".

The day before his trial he was particularly noisy. The Court house was unusually crowded with spectators and when the prisoner was placed in the dock he made no resistance, "and as usual acted the fool or madman, snapping his fingers,—took off his shoes and socks and tore his shirt". When asked to plead he paid no attention and the jury was empanelled to enquire "whether the prisoner at the bar stood mute wilfully and obstinately, or by the visitation of God". The evidence being taken, the jury returned a verdict that the prisoner stood mute by the visitation of God. It is the first evidence of common sense shown in the treatment of the prisoner, and yet it was but a flash in the pan.

The next day the trial proceeded, evidently no provision being made to excuse a prisoner suffering by the visitation of God. The prisoner was asked to stand up for his defence, to hold up his hand and hear the evidence, but he did not pay the slightest attention to the request and fought furiously with the constable who endeavoured to make him do these things. A cord was secured and his arms pinioned and eventually his arms were lashed by means of a rope to the railing of the box. In spite of all this he broke the railings. Finally he was lashed by various ropes, and the trial proceeded, but not before he had destroyed a great deal of the prisoner's dock. There was the usual hair splitting by the lawyers and a motion to quash the indictment was made on the ground that one letter omitted or inserted in an indictment quashed it. "This move was overruled by the Judge and was reserved for the Court above".

The defence lawyer relied on his ability to save Smith from the gallows by a series of technicalities which appealed neither to judge nor jury in an age when horse stealing was a hideous crime punishable with death. The judge was very direct in his charge and a verdict of guilty was speedily rendered. "The judge then proceeded to pass upon Smith the awful sentence of the law—Death—without benefit of clergy".

The defence counsel, true to his methods, immediately produced authorities to show that the law which took away the benefit of clergy, for horse stealing, was not in force in the Colony of New Brunswick and

wished for the opinion of a Higher Court. The judge granted the request but expressed his opinion against the validity of the plea. It was comic opera of a type more grotesque than any staged by Gilbert and Sullivan.

Smith was placed on a diet of bread and water, but as our author says "paid no attention, patted his hands, sang and acted the fool as usual".

The gaoler could not miss the opportunity of lecturing his prisoner and said, "Smith, it is too late for you to deceive any more and you had better employ your little time in making your peace with God, than to act the fool any longer". He discovered proof too of Smith's duplicity when he found a leaf turned down in the Testament "If any man among you seemeth to be wise, let him become a fool that he may be wise".

Smith's insanity was marked at times and he now stripped off every particle of clothing leaving himself entirely naked, but evidently became less excited as is shown by the following extraordinary letter which was published in the Royal Gazette July 11th, 1815.

"My Dear Sir,—Having heard nothing from you since the late Jail Delivery at King's County, I beg leave briefly to state to you some circumstances of the conduct of the criminal Henry More Smith, since his trial and sentence. After securing him with strong chains to his neck and legs, and with handcuffs he continued beating the floor, hallooing day and night with little intermission, making different sounds; sometimes with jinking his chains: and sometimes without, apparently in different parts of the jail, insomuch that the jailer frequently sent for me, supposing he must be loose from his chains, which I conceived and frequently observed was impossible, being far beyond the power of human strength or invention, in his situation; but on the 24th of May, going into the jail early in the morning (after having examined his chains at 2 o'clock the day before), I found three links of his heaviest chain separated, and lying on the floor, being part of the chain without the staple. He continued in the same way until the 2d of June, when we found the largest chain parted about the middle and tied with a string: which clearly proves that irons and chains are no security for him. I then put on him a light chain, with which he has been ever since. I never discovered him at work at any thing, but he frequently produced effigies or likenesses, very striking, representing his wife. He now produced an effigy of a man in perfect shape, with his features painted, and joints to all his limbs, and dressed him in clothes that he had made in good shape and fashion, out of the clothes that he had torn off himself (being now naked), which was admired for its ingenuity. This he would put sometimes in one position and sometimes in another, and seemed to amuse himself with it, without taking the least notice of anything else; continuing in his old way hallooing, without any alteration, until the

13th, when the jailer informed me, that he refused to eat, and no doubt was sick. I went to see him every day—found he did not eat—all the bread and other provisions conveyed to him he gave to his effigy, strung on a string and put in his hand. He lay perfectly still day and night, and took no notice of anything—would drink tea or milk, which I gave him twice a day for five days; he then refused to drink anything for two days, which made seven days that he eat nothing. In that time he began to speak—would ask questions, but would hold no conversation. But the most extraordinary, the most wonderful and mysterious of all is, that in this time he had prepared, undiscovered, and at once exhibited the most striking picture of genius, art, taste, and invention, that ever was, and I presume ever will be produced by any human being placed in this situation, in a dark room, chained and handcuffed, under sentence of death, without so much as a nail or any kind of thing to work but his hands, and naked. The exhibition is far beyond my pen to describe. To give you some faint idea, permit me to say, that it consists of ten characters,—men, women and children,—all made and painted in the most expressive manner, with all the limbs and joints of the human frame,—each performing different parts; their features, shape and form, all express their different offices and characters; their dress is of different fashions, and suitable to the stations in which they are. To view them in their station they appear as perfect as though alive, with all the air and gaiety of actors on the stage. Smith sits on his bed by the side of the jail, his exhibition begins about a foot from the floor, and compasses the whole space to the ceiling. The uppermost is a man whom he calls the tamborine player, or sometimes doctor Blunt, standing with all his pride and appearance of a master musician; his left hand akimbo, his right hand on his tamborine, dressed in suitable uniform. Next him, below, is a lady genteelly dressed, gracefully sitting in a handsome swing; at her left stands a man neatly dressed in the character of a servant, holding the side of the swing with his right, his left hand on his hip, in an easy posture, waiting the lady's motion. On her right hand stands a man genteelly dressed, in the character of a gallant, in a graceful posture for dancing. Beneath these three figures sit a young man and a young girl (apparently about 14), in a posture of tilting, at each end on a board, decently dressed. Directly under these stands one whom he calls Bonaparte, or sometimes the father of his family; he stands erect; his features are prominent; his cheeks red; his teeth white, set in order; his gums and lips red; his nose shaded black, representing the nostrils; his dress is that of the harlequin. In one hand he holds an infant, with the other he plays or beats music; before him stand two children, apparently three or four years old, holding each other by one hand, in the act of playing or dancing, which, with a man dressed in

fashion, who appears in the character of a steward, sometimes in one situation and sometimes in another, makes up the show, all of which you have at one view. Then commences the performance. The first operation is from the tamborine player, or master, who gives two or three single strokes on his tamborine, that may be heard in any part of the house, without moving his body. He then dances gracefully a few steps, without touching the tamborine; the lady is then swung two to three times by the steward; then the gallant takes a few steps; then the two below tilt a few times, in the most easy, pleasant manner; then the two children dance a little, holding each other by the hand; after this, Smith begins to sing or whistle a tune, to which they are to dance, at which the tamborine strikes, and every one dances to the tune, with motion, ease and exactness not to be described. Many have been the observations of spectators; amongst them, an old German observed, that "when he was starving the seven days, he was making a league with the devil, and that he helped him". All acknowledge with me, that it exceeds every thing they ever saw or imagined. His whole conduct from the first has been, and is, one continued scene of mystery. He has never shown any idea or knowledge of his trial or present situation; he seems happy; his irons and chains are no apparent inconvenience; contented like a dog or a monkey broken to his chain; shows no more idea of any thing past, than if he had no recollection. He, in short, is a mysterious character, possessing the art of invention beyond common capacity. I am almost ashamed to forward you so long a letter on the subject, and so unintelligible; I think, if I could have done justice in describing the exhibition, it would have been worthy a place in the Royal Gazette, and better worth the attention of the public than all the wax-work ever exhibited in this Province.

I am, with all due respect, dear sir,

Your very humble servant."

Apparently the absurdity of the sentence must have impressed even the Attorney General and his associates and eventually a pardon was procured. In the meanwhile the prisoner had become more and more demented and gave evidence of many hallucinations. The credulous old gaoler too, discovered that Smith had the gift of prophecy and learned that while he had the ability to break his chains he had no desire to escape, but was happy when allowed to play with his puppets.

When the pardon arrived Smith did not pay the slightest attention to the news; indeed the only reply he made was "I wish you would bring me some new potatoes when you come again".

His insane behaviour became more and more marked, and it was found necessary in order to get rid of him to adopt a method of deporta-

tion that has frequently been employed with success since that date. His puppets were packed up and he and his family placed on board a vessel sailing for the United States. While the vessel was getting under way Smith was in the cabin alone, and seeing a great number of chain traces lying on the cabin floor took them up and threw them all out of the window "because they would get about my neck again" he said. When the vessel reached Windsor, N.S., he disappeared. From this point of the story the gaoler's record is anything but satisfactory and infers too much to make it altogether credible. He would have us believe that the Mysterious Stranger was the author of many crimes in the U.S., but the evidence leaves much to be desired and the allegation that the unfortunate man eventually found his way to the gaol in Toronto is problematical However, the ingenuous author closes his really remarkable book by a homily quite worthy of his suggestive mind.

He cannot learn as to whether Smith escaped from the Toronto gaol, but of one thing he is satisfied, viz., "that Smith is again going up and down in the earth, in the practice of his hoary headed villainy, except a Power from on High have directed the arrow of conviction to his heart, for no inferior impulse would be capable of giving a new direction to the life and actions of a man, whose habits of iniquity have been ripened into maturity and obtained an immovable ascendancy by the practice of so many years. He concludes his book by saying, "The writer would close up these pages by finally observing, that if these Memoirs should ever fall into the hands of Henry More Smith, the unhappy subject of them, and should he, from whatever motive, be induced to peruse them, he trusts that the review of a life, so wretchedly and miserably misspent, may be accompanied with conviction from on High, and be followed up with repentance unto life, that he that has so often been immured within the walls of an earthly prison, may not at the close of his unhappy and sinful course in this world, be finally shut up in the prison of Hell, and bound hand and foot in the chains of eternal darkness, where shall be weeping and wailing and gnashing of teeth: where the hope of mercy or release can never enter, but the wrath of God abideth for ever and ever".

Such in brief is the story of the Mysterious Stranger, one of the most lucid expositions I have met of the ideas prevalent a hundred years ago, regarding mental disease, and yet showing a scepticism regarding the reality of insanity not much more remarkable than that evidenced even at the present date, by certain supposedly well educated people. The crudities of law as administered in the early part of last century are perhaps greater than the crudities of law as administered at the present time when questions of the care and treatment of insane criminals are considered, but even yet law has much to learn on this subject. The

individual is still relegated too often to the back ground, and the punishment made to fit the crime. No apology is made for the length of this article—the lessons are so well illustrated by the author of the Mysterious Stranger, and the conclusions so obvious that no comment is necessary.

The garrulous gaoler lived up to his beliefs, his point of view was hopeless, and his treatment only that regularly supplied to certain groups of the insane.

As a document of historical importance from the standpoint of psychiatry the Mysterious Stranger is unique in Canadian literature.

THE PARENTS' PLEA

By DR. HELEN MacMURCHY
Provincial Inspector of Feeble-Minded, Parliament Buildings, Toronto

THE parents of a mentally defective child have a great claim on our sympathy. It is a sad fate

"To bear, to rear and then to lose."

But "to bear, to rear" . . . and then to find that the son or daughter of many hopes and prayers will never grow up, but is, and always will be, mentally defective, is a far sadder fate. . . .

The truest comfort we can give these parents is to recall to them how happy they were in their own childhood. At seven years of age they were so happy. Children in a good home can hardly feel unhappiness, they are not old enough.

"The meaning of an aching heart is hid from such as they."

So it is with permanent children (Mental Defectives) in a suitable and happy permanent home. Children of the mental age of seven can always be kept as happy there as a normal child of seven years is, and that fact is a great comfort to the parents if they can only be helped to realize it.

Then at once the natural question follows: "Where can we find such a permanent, happy home?" Homes in this world are not organized to last through three generations, and the mentally defective child, like his normal brother, may live to be three score years and ten, and yet, unlike his normal brother, may need the same home care all his life. There is only one answer. The mental defective cannot adjust himself to his environment. We must adjust the environment to him. He cannot make or help to make a home for himself. We must make a home for him. In other words, we must make an institution with a home spirit and environment.

Who will consider the case of the self-respecting, self-supporting and fairly well-to-do parents of a mentally defective child? It would be quite possible for such parents to purchase an annuity for this son or daughter, or otherwise provide a reasonable sum for maintenance, if other parents similarly situated could join with them in organizing such an institution. What is needed is something like a boarding-school —a private institution—a permanent home, where the refinements to which these children are accustomed, and which they can use and enjoy, might be provided, and where, though it should doubtless be under inspection by the State, or perhaps connected with a State Institution, such a home would be essentially private in every way and all the needs of these children would be provided for on a reasonable and even generous

scale, especially the need for employment and development of their powers as well as for that supervision which is as considerate and kind, vigilant and wise as that in their own homes and in addition will be permanent. This has been done in other countries and the time has come when it is needed in Canada.

Requests for information about such an institution have been frequent of late. Indeed, some Canadian children who are mentally defective are now being maintained by their parents at a comparatively large expense in various private institutions in the United States. Efforts have also been made to obtain admittance for others to private institutions in Great Britain, although these efforts, so far, have not been successful. There are others again for whom no such arrangement has been made but whose parents are in great anxiety about them. One of them, a young man of about twenty-five, whose mental defect is obvious, enlisted promptly for service in the Great War, and in the simple routine of army life in the cook-house and elsewhere, really managed very well as he was quite capable of acquiring routine duty and was very faithful in carrying it out. Although not able to keep or save any money himself he was fortunately persuaded to hand his pay to a relative who placed it in the bank for him, and he now has, as a result of his employment during the four years of the War in military service, some hundreds of dollars to his credit in the bank.

In such a private institution as above described this young man, who has many virtues, and is always asking for "A Job" would be a truly useful unit in the sum of Canadian life. As it is, what is to become of him?

Another boy, a high grade mental defective, learned type-writing after a manner, though his mental defect was recognized in the Business College, and so got employment for a little while. Then he drifted into employment at a restaurant and afterwards into a dozen other positions in a very short time. His greatest fault was that he was always annoying some girl with his attentions. He had little or no self-control. Of his mental defect there is no doubt. But if he had only had somebody to guide him aright he would have been a success in a simple life. He is now submerged, poor fellow! He cannot manage for himself.

There are several girls belonging to good Canadian families whose need is even more heart-breaking. It is hard to have to tell parents, in answer to their frequent requests, that there is not yet any such private School or Home in Canada to which their children can be sent.

Such homes should be called by some pleasant name, "The Lodge" or "The Manor" or "The Home Farm" or some other attractive name. They have been quite successful financially and otherwise in Great Britain and the United States. There is no reason why they should not be so in Canada. Who will give ear to The Parents' Plea?

ORIENTAL IMMIGRATION

BY W. G. SMITH, B.A.
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ONE of the first difficulties in considering the extent and influence of immigration into Canada from Asia is the lack of adequate statistics. The census of 1901 reported in the Dominion 4,674 persons who were born in Japan, and 4,515 of these were in the province of British Columbia. Of Chinese there were 16,792 and the most of them were also in British Columbia. Since the total population of that province at that time was 178,657, the approximately 12% proportion of Asiatics was significant and also so unsatisfactory that in 1900 British Columbia passed an Immigration Act which practically excluded all Asiatics. In the following year, 1901, the Act was disallowed by Earl Minto, then Governor-General of Canada. With praiseworthy persistence the province passed a similar Act in 1902, 1903, 1904 and finally in 1905, but all were disallowed. The Acts in succession rejected all illiterates, for the provisions of 1902 and 1903 required that an immigrant entering Canada should be able to read, and those of 1904 and 1905 required that the immigrant should be able to write at dictation "in the characters of some language of Europe a passage of 50 words in length in an European language". Such requirements showed at least something of the attitude of British Columbia, and the agitation carried on during the above mentioned years was no doubt the strongest factor in inducing the Dominion Government to extensively increase the restrictions against Oriental Immigration. That these restrictions were necessary and where desired effectual, but yet did not succeed in entirely prohibiting the influx of Asiatics may be seen from the fact that the extremely rapid increase of Hindus during the last decade suddenly dropped upon the passage of restrictive legislation. This may be seen from the following table of Asiatic Immigration from 1904 to 1918 inclusive as follows:

	1904	1905	1906	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	Total
Hindu	....	45	387	2124	2623	6	10	5	3	5	88	0	1	0	0	5,297
Japanese	6	354	1922	2042	2061	495	271	437	765	724	856	592	401	648	883	12,457
Chinese	9	....	18	92	1884	1887	2156	5278	6247	7445	5512	1258	88	393	769	33,036
Total	15	399	2327	4258	6568	2388	2437	5720	7015	8174	6456	1850	490	1041	1652	50,790

It is quite clear from these figures that the rapidly developing Hindu immigration received such a sudden check in 1909 as to practically eliminate that source, while Japanese were reduced to about one fourth the number of the preceding year, only to be again diminished in 1911, since when the stream has been only slowly regathering headway, while the Chinese did not suffer any diminution but showed steady increase until the period of The Great War. The significance of these figures is so great that the groups deserve to be studied in detail.

Hindu Group—One need not express much surprise at the insistent attitude of British Columbia when the wave from India increased in three years from 45 to 2,623, while the whole population of the province had not yet reached 350,000. To find out what was at the bottom of such an influx of "undesired" immigrants a Royal Commission was appointed to enquire into the methods by which such large numbers of Hindu labourers had been induced to emigrate to Canada. According to the evidence furnished by Hindus themselves who testified before the Commission the main reasons were as follows: (*a*) the activity of certain steamship companies and agents who desired to sell transportation and profit by the commissions. (*b*) The distribution throughout some of the rural districts of India of literature concerning Canada and the opportunities of making fortunes in the province of British Columbia. (*c*) The representations of a few individuals in the province of British Columbia, among the number a Brahman named Davichand, and certain of his relatives, who induced a number of the natives of India to come to Canada under actual or verbal agreements to work for hire, the purpose being that of assisting one or two industrial concerns to obtain a class of unskilled labour at a price below the current rate, and at the same time of exploiting their fellow subjects to their own advantage. Some of the Hindus may have emigrated to Canada of their own accord or because of the advice or desire of relatives who had come to this country, but had the influences above mentioned not been exerted, it is certain that their numbers would not have been appreciable. On the other hand there may be some ground for the view that Indian troops who had returned home from Queen Victoria's Jubilee by way of Canada had been eye-witnesses of Canada's opportunities and resources, and so from among them the movement had begun. Further Canada was one of the British Colonies, and migration from one possession to another seemed to be perfectly in order if British citizenship were sufficiently valid. It is needless to say that this, however imperialistic, was not the attitude of Canada and especially of British Columbia whose decided opinion was that the Hindus were not wanted, though they were British subjects. The Hon. W. L. MacKenzie King who had been the Commissioner chosen to investigate and report upon Oriental Immigration

was, in 1908, sent to England to confer with the British authorities regarding this difficult situation. It was not, however, entirely new to the British statesmen who had frequently to deal with the question of migration of peoples of different races between the various parts of the empire. British Columbia's case was only a recent one, and the ardent desire of Canada to make the great Dominion as far as possible a "white man's country" was admitted as imperative on various grounds. The agreement arrived at, to quote from Mr. King's report, was that the native of India was not regarded as "a person suited to this country; that accustomed as many of them are to the conditions of a tropical climate, and possessing manners and customs so unlike those of our own people, their inability to readily adapt themselves to surroundings entirely different could not be other than entail an amount of privation and suffering which render a discontinuance of such immigration most desirable in the interest of the Indians themselves". While all this was effective on the grounds of sentiment and benevolent consideration of the Hindus, something more was required for their exclusion, and the means was ready at hand. First, steamship companies who were in any way responsible for the recruiting of immigrants were given to understand that such action would not be favourably regarded by the governments of Great Britain and Canada.

Second, the Indian Emigration Act of 1863 was found to provide that emigration in the sense of the departure by sea out of British India of a native of India, under an agreement to labour for hire in some country beyond the limits of India, other than the island of Ceylon or the Straits Settlements, is not lawful except to countries specified in the Schedule of the Act, "and to such other countries as the Governor-in-Council from time to time by notification declares to be countries to which emigration is lawful". Every such notification must contain a declaration that the Governor-General in Council has been duly certified that the government of the country to which the notification refers has made such laws and other provisions as the Governor-General in Council thinks sufficient for the protection of immigrants to that country during their residence therein. Hence, unless the Canadian Government made the necessary laws, to the satisfaction of the Government of India, for the protection of Indian Emigrants, such emigration as that which had taken place from India to Canada was not lawful.

Third, the amount of money which immigrants were required to have in their possession, viz., $25 was, in the case of the Hindus, raised to $200.

Fourth, the final and adequate means was the application to Hindu immigrants of section 38 of the Immigration Act which requires that any immigrants who have come to Canada otherwise than by continuous journey from the countries of which they are natives or citizens, and

upon through tickets purchased in that country, may be excluded. Since there was no means by which a continuous journey from India to Canada could be accomplished, the last provision was peculiarly efficient and Hindu immigration practically ceased. While Canada then does not expressly exclude Hindu emigrants, the regulations are such as to actually achieve that result.

Japanese Group—Since 1900 about 18,000 Japanese have entered Canada, but the census of 1911 showed that only 9,021 gave their nationality as Japanese though during 1900-1911 alone about 7,588 had landed. Yet 9,021 in 1911 is considerable increase over 4,738 in 1901. But in 1911 out of those 9,021 there were 6,669 males of 21 years and over, of whom only 1,491 were naturalised and 5,208 alien. From whatever reasons it is quite apparent that only a small proportion—about one-fifth of the adult males was becoming Canadian to at least the extent of obtaining naturalisation papers. An indication of the unequal distribution of these naturalised Japanese throughout Canada is indicated by the fact that there were reported from Nova Scotia 1, Manitoba 19, Quebec 29, Saskatchewan 58, North West Territories 72, Ontario 108, Alberta 244, British Columbia 7,894. One need not express much surprise, then, at British Columbia taking alarm at the increasing number of Japanese who were arriving at Vancouver. British Columbia was decidedly bearing the heavy part of Oriental Immigration and the cry for "a white Canada" could receive some attention when out of a population of 392,480 in 1911 the 7,894 Japanese constituted a little over 2 per cent. and, furthermore, out of the considerable influx only a small proportion were being naturalized. When, therefore, during 10 months of the year 1907, no less than 8,125 Japanese arrived at the shores of British Columbia, there was some ground for consternation, although 3,619 held passports for the United States. To complicate the matter still further, while some 900 came direct from Japan through the agency of the Tokio Emigration Company at Yokohama, a large influx came from Hawaii, influenced, no doubt, by the restrictions made by the United States against such immigration. When the Royal Commission was appointed by the Canadian Government in 1908 to enquire into the methods by which Oriental labourers were induced to come to Canada, it was found that when Japanese emigrants entered Hawaii they passed out of the control of Japan, and came under the flag of the United States. But, when the Japanese reached Honolulu, certain conditions which need not here be described induced many of them to seek the high wages and opportunities of British Columbia. To offset this an agreement was made between Japan and Canada whereby the issue of passports for Japanese coming to Canada was limited to about 400 annually. There came, of course, after 1908 a decrease in Japanese immigration,

but since that year, as the foregoing table shows, the number of Japanese entering Canada has annually, with the exception of 1910, been in excess of that number, and in 1918 reached 883. These could not have been Hawaiin for the records show, since the year 1908, only 21 from that source. For the present, then, Japan is herself controlling emigration of her subjects to Canadian shores, and, according to the testimony of the officials, is living up to the terms of her agreement with Canada.

Chinese Group—Despite the fact that legislation on this continent has been adverse to the Chinese, and that the shores of the United States and Canada may be regarded as somewhat inhospitable, yet there has been a considerable tide flowing from the land of the dragon, even since 1900 no less than 33,036. According to the census of 1911, there were in Canada 27,774 Chinese distributed as follows: Prince Edward Island 6, New Brunswick 93, Nova Scotia 134, Manitoba 885, Saskatchewan 957, Quebec 1,578, Alberta 1,787, Ontario 2,766, British Columbia 19,568,—and here again the far western province had the heavy end of the Oriental problem. But of the large number of Chinese so distributed throughout Canada 23,586 were males of 21 years and over of whom only 2,144 were naturalized and 21,424 aliens. The ratio of naturalized to aliens is, thus, 1 to 10; while for the Japanese the ratio is almost 1 to 4, showing that the Japanese are proportionally more than twice as anxious as the Chinese for Canadian citizenship—unless it be a case of ability rather than desire for adaptation to Canadian customs and language. Nevertheless, it is an interesting question as to whether the Chinese or Japanese furnish the more profitable immigrant. While, as is well known, certain classes of Chinese, such as members of the diplomatic corps, governmental representatives with their suites and servants, consuls and consular agents, merchants with their wives and minor children, tourists, men of science, are exempt from paying a head tax, all other Chinese subjects must pay into the revenue of Canada a head-tax upon entering as an immigrant. This head-tax was first imposed in 1885 and amounted to $50 per individual. In 1901 the head-tax was increased to $100 and in 1904 to $500—the last, no doubt, due to the actions and attitude of British Columbia. But despite this considerable amount required upon entrance—which seems, at first glance, utterly unattainable by the ordinary Chinese—there was a big increase in Chinese immigration up to the year 1914, when the numbers began to decline, due not so much to the war, but probably more to the increasing scarcity of passenger ships rather than to any timidity or disinclination regarding immigration on the part of the Chinese. Just here it might be well to recall some of the financial aspects of past immigration mentioned in the second article of this series, viz., that since the beginning of the present century Canada has spent a total of $18,930,404 in promoting

and regulating the entrance of some three and one quarter millions of immigrants, at an average cost of $6 per capita. On this basis the 33,000 Chinese who have entered during the same period cost $198,000. But from 1885, when the first head-tax of $50 was placed on the Chinese immigrant—exclusive of the officials, etc., above mentioned—to 1918, they have paid into the treasury of Canada by that means alone over $18,000,000, and nothing was spent in China for promoting emigration, while over ten million dollars were spent in Europe in urging people of the British Isles and the continent to seek our shores. Clearly the Chinese on that score are a paying investment.

While during all this time the policy of Canada was not one of rigid exclusion, yet the severe restrictions imposed were supposed to be well-nigh equivalent to exclusion, and still Chinese immigration has steadily increased. Moreover, the Chinese in trying to enter Canada had a harder task than European, Japanese, or even Korean immigrants, for he had to prove to the satisfaction of the authorities that he is of a type to be admitted or he is excluded; while in the case of Europeans, Japanese, etc., the *authorities* must show that the immigrant is of a type to be excluded, or he is admitted. This looks on the face of it a discrimination against the Chinese, and it is no easy matter to devise ways and means by which the Chinese may be treated on a better equality—or, rather, less inequality—with other races. If the law were modified so that other classes than those now specified might be admitted, it would still fall to the task of the Chinese to prove that he belonged to the admissible classes, while for other races it would be the task of the immigration authorities to prove they should be excluded. If, on the other hand, the law were altered so as to admit all Chinese except certain specified classes—as is the case with other races—then the whole burden would fall on the immigration authorities to prove that the rejected were of the excluded classes. The discrimination is thus against the idea of the equality of races in respect of immigration conditions. Consequently, when in March, 1919, Viscount Ishii, Japanese Ambassador to the United States was reported to have intimated that Japan would endeavour to have the constitution of the League of Nations secure "equality of treatment" to citizens of every country, and abolish racial discriminations, it was to be naturally expected that delegates from the United States, Australia and South Africa would oppose such a view, however such view may be in accordance with "democracy, justice, and humanity". In view of the fact that the 1911 population of British Columbia, 392,480, contained beside other orientals 27,774 Chinese, the withdrawal of the discrimination against a numerous race with many eyes turned toward an immense country would have far-reaching consequences. Whether any similar

consequences may result from European immigrants or not the fact remains that they were put under no such handicap as the Chinese. If European immigrants could reach a certain standard they were encouraged: if the Chinese could not demonstrate the possession of certain qualifications they were excluded. But if it be desirable to still further limit the extent of Chinese Immigration some other tests will have to be applied than the possession of $500 and apparent freedom from disease and criminal propensities, and it is doubtful if the illiteracy test would be sufficient for the purpose, unless such a test demanded an adequate knowledge of English, *e.g.*, reading and writing a simple passage.

Despite the number of Chinese entering Canada year by year, the relatively small number who take out naturalization papers would indicate that few take up their permanent domicile in the country. This is further corroborated by the fact that the census of 1911 gave only 27,774 Chinese in Canada. Then, many who had acquired sufficient means must have returned to China or gone elsewhere, and though over 20,000 have arrived since 1911, it is doubtful if there are more than 35,000 at the present time in the country. But granting that the number of Chinese premanently domiciling here is comparatively small the problem presented by their presence is somewhat similar in character to that presented by other Asiatics. And the first outstanding feature is that they do not assimilate rapidly or easily. If assimilation can be at all gauged by naturalization then such a conclusion seems inevitable, and drawn from the course of events over a number of years. And if assimilation is so backward what indication is there that amalgamation, or blending of races, is practicable or even advisable? This question becomes more and more difficult to answer the more closely it is analyzed. Are the Chinese industrious, economical, temperate, law abiding? With occasional exceptions by way of opium and gambling the answer must be generally affirmative. Are they infirm in the sense of blind, deaf and dumb, insane, and idiotic? The answer must be an appeal to statistics. Of some 50 immigrants treated for tuberculosis in the Vancouver Hospitals in 1916 only 4 were Chinese, 1 was Japanese, and 1 Hindu. In the province of British Columbia with a population of 392,480 in 1911 the total number of infirm was 1,055, or 27 per 10,000 of the population, *i.e.*, less than Manitoba, Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward Island, and yet the province possessed more Orientals than all the other provinces combined. In Canada, as a whole, of the total number of 28,611 infirm in 1911, only 44 were Asiatic. Of the total Asiatic male population in Canada those blind constitute .24 per 10,000, those insane 9.41; and of the Asiatic female population 2.48 per 10,000 were blind, and about the same

proportion insane. The facts indicate that in the matter of blind, deaf and dumb, insane and idiotic, the Asiatics furnish a smaller ratio than almost any European country. But would the facts of deportation show that the Asiatics are of inferior quality on the grounds of disease and physical defects? For the period 1903-1909 the total number of deportations was 3,149 of which the Hindus were 29, the Japanese 4 and the Chinese 2. By ratio of deportations to immigrants the Asiatics were 1 to 614, the United Kingdom 1 to 218. For the period 1910—1918 out of a total of 9,701 deportations, the Chinese made 105, the Hindu 13, on the basis of ratio 1 to 277 and 1 to 9 respectively. Since the Hindus were practically excluded the high deportation rate is self-understood, but the Chinese on this score are more favourable than the British whose rate of rejection is 1 to 144. On the score then of a high rate of deportation because of physical and other defects a serious charge could scarcely be laid against the Asiatics. Moreover, their comparative freedom from dependence upon charitable organizations is very well known. What of the tendency to criminality? If we take the classification of convicts for 1911, on the basis of males 21 years and over—the only fair basis since so few of the Asiatics have families with them,—the total number of convicts was 1,865. Of these the Chinese made 13, and the ratio of criminals to the number of males 21 years and over was 50 per 10,000. The Italians gave a ratio of 380 per 10,000, the Americans 220, the total British 80, in fact the Chinese stood at the bottom of the list with the smallest ratio, and the Italians at the top with the largest.

It becomes evident, then, that the exclusion of the Asiatic cannot be on the grounds specified above, for he compares favourably, very favourably with other immigrants, and far superior to many. So far as the Hindus are concerned the Imperial conference bestowing on individual countries of the Empire control in the matter of immigration, made the supposed right of a British subject to pass freely from one dominion to another a simple myth. Formally India could exclude Canadians as Canada excludes Hindus. If the principle of free passage of the individuals of the nations within the League were adopted on the ground of equality of treatment to all, the abolition of distinction of races in this respect would mean a somewhat serious situation for Canada with tremendously large unoccupied areas and small population. It is true that the total number of Asiatics in Canada constitute about one-half of one per cent. of the total population, and the rest of the population should be able to take care of such a small factor. That would be very well possible if the population were somewhat uniform. But it is very complex and on this account has troubles enough of its own without the added factor of a large oriental burden. For in the final analysis

the objection to the Oriental is not racial, nor social, nor religious, but economic. The Asiatic is accustomed to long hours of labour, small wages, and a low standard of living. The whole trend of Western Industrial Labour, on the other hand, has been toward shorter hours of labour, larger wages and a higher standard of living. These two industrial conditions are incompatible and in occupations where the Oriental prevails the Canadian labourer moves out. Doubtless other factors contribute to this, such as racial sentiment, difference of language, etc., but these would be less forceful if the foregoing vital differences could be diminished or eliminated. That remains largely in the hands of the Orientals themselves, and it is doubtful if, without assistance, they can achieve it. The attempt to Canadianize, educate and develop the Japanese and Chinese immigrant has not been marked with much vigour on the part of Governments, churches, or social organizations, and perhaps the task is not easily performed. Yet with such Canadianizing and Socializing influences it is inevitable that the immigration of Orientals must be under severe restrictions, and the fact that so comparatively few take naturalization indicates that there is no strong desire to change allegiance. Strangely enough the Japanese surpass the Chinese in this regard, yet the number of Japanese in Canada has not varied considerably since 1907. Considerable numbers have been coming and going, and it is difficult to see how a nation like Japan with such enormous expenditures and a rapidly expanding industrialism could ever encourage or even allow a large emigration when home production is such a prime necessity, and when the emigrant under other skies may change his allegiance. While that situation remains Japan will probably always be willing to limit the outflow of her citizens into other countries. But that restriction is not operative with the Chinese against whom, as well as the Hindus, on economic grounds the barriers will remain.

SUMMER SCHOOL FOR AUXILIARY CLASS TEACHERS AT TORONTO

BY MISS BESSIE KELLAWAY
Hon. Secretary, Ontario Auxiliary Class Teachers' Association.

THE second Summer Course in Auxiliary Class work was held in the Social Service building of the University of Toronto, from July 8th to August 5th, 1919, when thirty-two students took the course, and sat for the final examinations.

The fact that the teaching profession is becoming more interested in this work, was evidenced by the increase in the number of students enrolled this session, which number was more than double that of the previous session held in 1916. Every student was a fully qualified teacher, of wide and varied experience, which gave to the educational work a meaning and reality necessarily absent in the case of teachers with less experience.

The majority of the students came from Toronto, but the following cities also contributed their quota: Hamilton, Ottawa, Windsor, Kitchener and Kingston.

The course offered was as follows: Mental Defectiveness—Its Cause and Prevention; Psychology—General and Special; The Methodology of the Auxiliary Class Subjects; Organization and Management of Auxiliary Class Subjects.

The morning sessions were devoted to lectures, practical training in handicrafts, and attendance at classes, where the teaching of various types of physically and mentally defective children was demonstrated by teachers who held special qualifications for that particular work. These classes contained mentally defective, myopic, totally deaf, crippled, stammering and super-normal children. The afternoons were spent in visiting such institutions as the Mercer, Mimico, The Alexander School for girls, open air schools, forest schools and various clinics at the Toronto General Hospital.

Dr. Helen MacMurchy was responsible for the arrangements in connection with the course, and was assisted by the following lecturers: Dr. Edward A. Bott, Lecturer on Psychology; Dr. Edward Pratt, Lecturer on Psychiatry; Mr. Norman Burnette, Lecturer on Occupational Therapy; Mr. Charles Paton, Instructor in handicrafts.

In addition to the foregoing an interesting address was delivered by Sir John Willison on "Gifted Children", and also an address by Dr. C. M. Hincks on "Psychiatric Clinic". The physiological side of the work

was dealt with by Dr. C. H. Clarke and Dr. W. Wright who specialized on the ear and eye respectively.

All the students were successful in passing the final examinations, and have since received from the Department of Education, the Special Certificate issued to teachers of Auxiliary Classes.

The outcome of the Summer Course was the formation of the Auxiliary Class Teachers' Association, whose members all hold Auxiliary Class Teachers' Certificates. All the students of the 1919 session became members, and invitation has been extended to teachers who previously held this qualification. Associate Membership is open to any individual who is interested in Auxiliary Class Work.

The Objects of the Association are as follows:

1. To use every means to advance the methods of the education of mentally and physically defective children.

2. To enlist the sympathy and active interest of the general public in their behalf.

3. To consider and evolve the best methods of training teachers for special school duties.

4. To promote the interests of special school teachers.

5. To consider the after care of mentally and physically defective children.

6. To promote the interchange of experience by conferences and meetings, local and general; and to consider and adopt any other means which may be calculated to further the interest of mentally and physically defective children.

The Officers of the Association are:

President: Dr. Helen MacMurchy.

Vice-President: Principal J. Bulmer.

Chairman: Mrs. M. Kerr.

Director: Miss Helen Shepherd.

Secretary-Treasurer: Miss Bessie Kellaway.

ONE PHASE OF THE FOREIGN INVASION OF CANADA

JASPER HALPENNY, M.A.M.D., C.M., F.A.C.S.
Winnipeg.

THE final report of the Board of Registration, which on June 22nd, 1918, took a census of all people in Canada over 16 years of age, showed the following. In all, 5,242,591 people were registered.

The number of aliens who registered was divided amongst the various provinces as follows: Nova Scotia, 7,290; New Brunswick, 3,732; Prince Edward Island, 279; Quebec, 46,379; Ontario, 109,645; Manitoba, 30,801; Alberta, 50,549; British Columbia, 63,479. Making a total of 312,154. It was not clear in the press reports but it seems probable that figures referring to aliens include only males over 16 who were not naturalized. The number in Saskatchewan did not appear in the article at hand.

Of people of foreign birth who registered, United States citizens lead with a total of 109,093, Hungarians 70,501, Chinese 47,102, Russians 42,104, and Italians 27,107.

A brief survey of the cases coming before the six assize courts of Manitoba during the spring of 1919, and the county court of the largest district, viz., Winnipeg, reveals some interesting facts. In the southern judicial district there were 2 Scotch, 3 Canadians, 1 Russian and 1 English, all of whom could read and write. None of the accused were found guilty of the crimes laid against them. This district has only a small foreign population.

At the Dauphin Assizes, where there is a large foreign population tributary, the following cases appeared, English 3, Russian 1, Austrian 8, four of whom could not read or write, American 1, Canadian 9, one of whom could not read or write.

At Minnedosa, where there is also a large foreign population tributary, out of 10 cases tried 9 where Galicians, A press note which appeared during this assizes said, "As the witnesses are all foreigners and have to speak through an interpreter, the cross-examination has been taking up considerable time."

The following list for the Eastern Judicial district includes all criminal cases from January 1917 till the time of the spring assizes of 1919. This district includes the city of Winnipeg.

English	11
French	2
Icelandic	1
Irish	4
Scotch	4
Canadians	58
Americans	9
	89

Norwegians	2
Swedish	2
Belgians	3
Ukranian	2
Dane	1
Italians	6
Germans	1
Austrians	79
Russians	35
Greek	1
Ruthenian	1
Galicians	2
Swiss	2
Polish	7
Roumanian	3
Spanish	1
Holland	1
	149

In this article, those born in the United States have been grouped with British born because of their springing largely from common stock. Icelanders are also included with Canadians because we find them more quickly Canadianized than any European group, except those who are British born.

In the first group above, made up of English, French, Irish, Scotch, Icelandic and American, we find 89, or 37% of the total number of criminals in this judicial district. In the other group there are 149, or 63%.

It will be observed that the Austrians contributed 33% and the Russians nearly 15%. Figures available do not show the total number of people in the province of the two groups as made up above. Neither were figures available for the two assize courts at Portage la Prairie and Brandon.

When the cases are all totaled up, with the same grouping of nationalities as above, we find there were in all 109, or 39% grouped with Canadians and 168, or 61% in the group of aliens or alien birth. It is quite clear this classification is not true to nationalities, but the purpose is to show the alien burden, and the grouping here is certainly in their favour.

It is thus clearly seen that our criminal class, with all the attendant evils, to say nothing of the expense, is drawn all too much from our aliens.

It is quite well known that insanity plays no unimportant role in the realm of criminality. Dr. Bernard Glueck, for example, writing in *Mental Hygiene*, April 1918, "Concerning Prisoners", says, "Thus, for example, we find that no less than 50% of our 606 cases, in addition to evincing various conduct disorders—the direct cause of their imprisonment—

also exhibited some form of nervous or mental abnormality, which in one way or another had conditioned their behaviour. Twelve per cent. were insane or mentally deteriorated, another 28.1% were intellectually defective, while 18.9% were classified as psychopathic".

To judge of the relation of the "foreign invasion" to the problem of mental defects in Manitoba we do not need to surmise from the statistics regarding criminality. From the study of the Public Welfare Commission of this Province the following facts were given us in their second interim report.

POPULATION OF MANITOBA			NATIONALITY OF INSANE PATIENTS IN BRANDON AND SELKIRK ASYLUMS	
		Per Cent.		Per Cent.
Canadian	209,186 or	46.00	338	35.21
British	57,229 or	12.5	273	28.52
Others	2,293 or	.53	93	9.71
French	30,944 or	6.79	16	1.67
German	34,530 or	7.57	18	1.88
Austrian-Hungarian	39,665 or	8.70	115	12.01
Belgian	2,453 or	.53	8	.83
Bulgarian and Roumanian	123 or	.02	5	.52
Chinese	885 or	.19	4	.41
Dutch	2,853 or	.62	4	.41
Greek	317 or	.06	1	.10
Indian	7,876 or	1.07		
Italian	972 or	.10	5	.52
Japanese	5 or	.001		
Jewish	10,741 or	2.35		
Negro	209 or	.04		
Polish	12,310 or	2.61	1	.10
Russian	7,761 or	1.04	38	3.97
Scandinavian	16,419 or	3.60		
Swiss	396 or	.08	22	2.29
Unspecified	20,727 or	4.05	13	1.35

If the reader will carefully scrutinize the two percentages columns above and also note the undue proportion of our court cases which spring from our alien, and our foreign and other immigrant population, he will be compelled to come to the conclusion that our immigration policy has been grossly defective in the past. In the future we must think of quality, not quantity. And we cannot escape as citizens from all blame. It does not tell the whole story to say that Governments are entirely at fault. Certain groups of so called charitable people are at least equally to blame. Employers of labour have no doubt at times been responsible for part of the evils we now detect. An evil has existed in the past which must be avoided in the future.

INVALID OCCUPATION AS A GUIDE TO THE VOCATIONAL FITNESS OF THE HANDICAPPED

BY NORMAN L. BURNETTE
Ontario Vocational Branch, Department of Soldiers' Civil Re-Establishment.

THE therapeutic value of properly prescribed occupation for invalids is axiomatic.

Occupation may be given to supply interests, which will displace those wrong ideas common to mental sickness. It may be designed to give opportunity for the execution of certain orthopaedic movements. It may be given as a mental "setting up exercise" for minds grown sluggish through hospitalization, or dazed by the realization of a severe handicap.

The basic principles underlying the above are not new. Certain developments are of recent growth, and the peculiar needs of the war disabled have given an added impetus to the work.

If Invalid Occupation is to be evaluated from the standpoint of always using the word "therapeutic" in connection with occupation, the whole question remains in the domain of medicine, and, as such, is outside the province of the laymen.

But the war has brought into evidence a feeling on the part of society that disability is no longer to be regarded merely as a personal misfortune, but also as an interference with the capacity for useful production, and, therefore, as a social loss.

Re-establishment implies medical treatment as one of its containing factors, but, where the impairment of work capacity is such that the injured cannot hope to function again in their old environment, then the cure, socially speaking, is not consummated until the cripple has been re-educated for a new line of useful endeavour.

It has been repeatedly demonstrated among disabled soldiers that the vocational training of adults is feasible and productive of results. The latest figures of the Vocational Branch of the Department of Soldiers' Civil Re-establishment (March 31st, 1919) show that 2,870 men had been re-trained, and were again taking their places as civilian wage earners, or 90.20% of retrained men actually re-claimed by society. These figures only include men who have been followed up by the Department for four months after the completion of training, and who have become stabilized in employment.

The matter of first importance in the re-education of the handicapped is the correct selection of the type of re-training. Changing from one thing to another in search of one's proper vocation is liable to breed a feeling of discouragement even to the healthy. Disabled men are peculiarly susceptible to this most destructive of harmful emotions. Successful vocational guidance depends upon the thorough understanding of the man's fitness in the broadest sense of the word. To achieve this understanding, a psychological study of the patient must be commenced at the earliest possible moment. Invalid occupation provides an invaluable opportunity for observation. In promoting occupations among the handicapped, this point of view must be kept in mind.

If we will examine for a moment the work which has been done in our War Hospitals in Canada, we will find now, an unanimity of opinion among medical men concerning the beneficial effects of occupation. It is interesting to note that the idea of providing occupation fitted to the needs of invalids was an offshoot, not of the practice of medicine, but of the vocational training scheme.

The revolutionary idea of sending professional teachers and trade instructors into hospitals to work with the patients during the period when they were still under the care of the doctors, proved itself right in principle, but was, at the start, wrong in practice. This practice was rapidly adjusted to the actual needs of the situation. The shops and classes conducted in the hospitals became primarily therapeutic in intent, and the work was expanded to take in the care of bed cases and ward patients through the introduction of trained women capable of teaching light handicrafts.

I say the principle was right, because, while conceding to the doctors absolute authority over the occupation carried on while the man was still a patient, it co-related this period with the placement of the man for training after discharge. It meant a co-ordinated effort with all the information concerning the man's activities while in hospital, at the disposal of those responsible of his ultimate re-training.

With the work among our convalescent soldiers fortunately on the decrease, it rests with us to consider in what way we may apply what we have learned of the value of Invalid Occupation to the needs of the civilian.

I will attempt nothing more than a very broad classification of the industrially injured, and content myself with saying that they are either (*a*) physically, or (*b*) mentally disabled. The parallel between the soldier and the civilian in group A is not complete. In the case of the first, the country assumes the whole burden of the man's rehabilitation, both medical and economic. With the second, society, at the present, is content to stop short with provision for medical care. With group B

there is similarity of treatment, because we provide custodial institutions.

There is a definite need for Invalid Occupation in the treatment of long cases of physical disability in our civilian hospitals, if only for one of the reasons given at the beginning of this article.

The full benefits of the work would be realized if, in the future, we developed agencies which would follow up the work of the hospitals, by training for vocations those individuals who are unable to continue in their accustomed work.

In the meantime, it would seem possible to take advantage of the growing tendency to consider a Social Service Department as a necessary part of a hospital organization. The addition of trained teachers of occupations to a hopital Social Service staff would provide the necessary personnel for bedside and ward work, and an After Care branch would carry the work into the home.

In both cases the teacher will have to be trained to understand the real aim of the work. Occupation, even in the first stage, must not be wholly diversional. In the last period, the work must not be entirely measured by the quantity, or quality of products, which may be all right at the bedside, but cannot be expected to provide a means of livelihood. Fulsome flattery of some little nicknack made by a bed patient, has, too often, filled the heads of the handicapped with false ideas as to the market value of hand-painted sofa cushions, and Roycroft tooth picks.

An occupational study lays stress, *not on what the patient does*, but on *how he does it*. The Vocational Psychologist will look upon the work in the light of a progressive performance test; a test which will measure, on the one hand, the patient's mental reaction, and, on the other, the probable degree of functional restoration.

The amount of technical knowledge which can be imparted to a patient during the earliest stage of convalescence is necessarily limited; but the technical knowledge which will be gleaned by the psychologist during this period is very valuable.

What is the patient's attitude towards occupation? towards his disability? towards his future? Is he eager to test his skill, or does his attitude range all the way from indifference, to unwillingness? Is he painstaking and persevering, or is he careless and uninterested? Is he slow to learn? Does he get easily discouraged?

Some patients lose interest just as soon as they have mastered the process, others benefit by constant application to the same task, gaining in self-confidence thereby. These manifestations will be readily recognized by the psychiatrist.

The uncovering of latent talents and suppressed longings are discoveries which sometimes turn disabilities into a blessing in disguise. Efficiency, in many walks of life, does not depend entirely upon the possession of robust health and brute strength, but upon the possession of imagination, judgment and initiative, the powers to observe, to reason and to apply.

Canada's experiences in re-training have emphasized one of the grim humours of our civilization. In countless cases it was not until disease, or a crippling wound had prevented return to an old routine, that men had an opportunity to display the powers that were within them. Desirable mental attributes show themselves to the careful observer through the work of the hand, and, let it be added, they can be developed by hand and mind working together just as readily as by formal education. It is not suggested that we shall find some "Village Hampden", some "Mute Inglorious Milton" in every hospital ward. Where the injury falls short of obvious total disability, we should work on the assumption that it is desirable to salvage the skilled artisan for his own calling.

The measurement of the result of ward or workshop therapy, which involves attempted restoration of function, should not stop short at a purely laboratory interest in curves and graphs. The test should include motions, which will approximate as closely as possible the motions which are normally used by the worker in his trade. In many cases, tools could be altered to fit deformities of the hands, or injuries to the arm.

With the mentally afflicted, much of what has been said concerning the physically disabled, is equally applicable. We have the same broad classification, those who are totally incapacitated, and whose lives, therefore, must be brightened by occupation, those who are amenable to cure by occupation, and those whose lives can be made useful and productive by education in occupations fitted to their capabilities, even though their lives must be lived under institutional care.

Surely there can be no better way of aiding the physician in a proper classification of those cases than through the provision of a wide range of occupations. It is conceivable that, even among the lowly, there must be many whose interest and enthusiasm cannot be kept at concert pitch by a day-in-day-out grind in kitchen, laundry, or repair shop.

The writer has been a privileged visitor in many mental hospitals. To those interested in the welfare of the unfortunate, I can suggest no more cheering experience than a day spent in one of the great American institutions where occupational therapy has been fully developed. The atmosphere of such hospitals as Bloomingdale, N.Y., Elgin, and Chicago State, Illinois, is not that of a living grave, but of activity and hope.

The crafts which have been found of most value to mental hospitals, are basketry, leather, work weaving, blockprinting, stenciling, woodwork, and metal work. The object of the treatment has a direct bearing on the choice of these crafts for mental patients. A nervous excitable person should be given work which, while it interest sufficiently to occupy the mind, must not excite the emotions, or cause a mental strain. A depressed patient, on the other hand, will benefit by bright cheerful work calling for a certain amount of animated action. Metal work, despite the noise, has been found very beneficial for shock patients in our war hospitals. The man's attention is taken up with what he is doing, he becomes unconscious of the noise of his own making, and, eventually, indifferent to noises of any kind.

A certain percentage of patients in all mental hospitals are eventually discharged. A history of how they were occupied, and what effect it had on them while they were patients, would be invaluable when considering their placement and after care. Those who remain as institutional cases should be given every possible opportunity for employment. What employments are possible, and what commendable results are obtained, can only be appreciated by one who has seen with his own eyes, the toys, weaving, basketry, book binding, furniture and pottery turned out by chronic cases.

That people, diagnosed as unable to function in ordinary surroundings, can produce useful and beautiful things and evince joy in their work, is a matter fraught with deep psychological significance.

Primitive man was a creature of the hand; through it he expressed his thoughts, his hopes, his fears, his strivings for communion with God. Machinery has tyrannized our lives, but it has not conquered us. We are the manipulators. The hand of man is still the master. "Our mind and temperament are built on handiwork and are attuned to it".*

Invalid Occupation is not a cure all, but its value to the physician is proven. If not allowed to become purely mechanical, it is invaluable to the vocational councillor. Studying the result, we see the craftsman expressing himself in terms of form, colour, materials, muscular activity and concrete ends.

It is a measurement of the mind and body in action. It is a guide to help us in placing the man in an environment where he can function.

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*Joseph Lee, "Play and Education".

THE RELATION OF THE JUVENILE COURT TO THE COMMUNITY

BY HELEN GREGORY MACGILL, M.A., MUS.BAC.
Member Minimum Wage Board of British, Columbia; Judge, Vancouver Juvenile Court.

THE Juvenile Court originally was established upon the sound theory that to bring the young and impressionable lawbreaker into close contact with the older criminal is detrimental not only to the young offender but to society in general. The Juvenile Delinquents Act (Chapter 40, 1908) is the outward and visible sign of the inward and spiritual grace of community conscience. The Act is noble acknowledgment of the natural inherent claim of every little citizen upon his older fellow citizens for opportunity to live right and develop the highest that is in him. The Act distinctly brushes aside technicalities, and plainly states that it is to be interpreted liberally to the benefit of the child. Judgment which makes the punishment "fit the crime" may be satisfactory if revenge is the ideal, but the Juvenile Delinquents. Act is concerned with reformation rather than punishment as such Much as it may please some to assert that severe penalties act as deterrents and that such prevent the repetition by the same criminal, careful investigation fails to prove this—capital punishment always excepted.

The inspirers, I use the word intentionally, of the Juvenile Court system, built better than they knew. As the system develops and expands the wisdom of such juvenile segregation is revealed and the scope for service widens from the narrow brook into the great ocean of universal service. Punishment suited to tender years, the guarding of the little offender from contamination by and association with the habitual criminal, by the creation of special courts and procedure has not only brought the results expected, but, because of the special study of these cases and their remedy, much that was hitherto unsuspected has been discovered.

In dealing with juvenile delinquents the "keystone of the arch" as Mr. Scott once wrote, is the probation. The small private court deprives the young would-be Dick Turpin and the girl prostitute of the glory of the police court. The probation officer "apprehending without warrant" and the detention home are far removed from arrest by police officers and the lock-up, while the probation office and the Industrial School afford no ground for vainglorious boasting before youthful admirers. All this doubtless the promoters had in mind but there are other departments, the necessity for which even the wisest could scarcely

have foreseen, for their need only became evident after the juvenile courts had been some time in existence.

The probation system carried out by discreet sympathetic officers produces splendid results. These shine as bright stars in a dark sky. But in every juvenile court is the child for whom judges, probation officers, Industrial School officials exhaust every effort apparently in vain. Here is the great problem. The problem we must finally face and upon the solution of which the future of the next generation largely depends. What makes the difference? Why does probation prove so satisfactory with some who after one or two appearances come no more to court but take their place worthily among their fellows, while with others it is a complete failure?

This question necessarily implies some searching into the underlying causes which bring children to the notice of the authorities. Experience teaches that there are certain young offenders who become "repeaters", and the age at which they come to the juvenile court depends seemingly not so much upon the seriousness of their delinquency but more or less upon whether their offence happens to be of a nature that annoys or shocks some one. For these, judges and probation officers try every resource in vain; though they break their hearts in the effort these children are constantly before the court and either drift helplessly into or head determinedly as the case may be, for the ranks of the low class lawbreaker, the sneak thief, the pick-pocket, the cheap prostitute, the mother of illegitimate children.

Since the basic principle which led to the establishment of juvenile courts was to cure and prevent this very evil—the recividist—to those concerned in their administration, the inevitableness of such fate for some children who seem destined to a life of failure and crime proves baffling and discouraging.

But the light of day is dawning and better understanding of the real problems is growing. We are beginning to realize that these childish offenders may be divided into certain fairly definite groups and that treatment successful in one case is not at all suitable in others.

First there is the normal child in the normal home.

Second the normal child in the abnormal home.

Third the abnormal child in the abnormal home.

For the first class probation and frequently for a short term is usually successful—the reason for him coming into the court being often due to high spirits or thoughtless mischief—bringing almost immediate and fruitful repentance.

The normal child in the abnormal home is also easily dealt with by the removal of the abnormal conditions. These may be owing to several causes—the widower endeavouring to keep his little family together

with the incompetent assistance of a too elderly relative or an older sister who has no control over the younger menmbers of the family. Or the widowed or deserted mother who must earn the daily bread and whose long hours away from home lead to untold mischief.

In the first case the family may be reorganized in some more effective way, or the children removed—though this should be the last resource. In the case of the mother earning the family livelihood a new phase arises. The necessity of helping the mother who is earning a living to bring up her children in the way they should go, the cruelty and the painful consequences of separating the worthy mother from her children has brought into existence the need for the enlargement of the Juvenile Court to include the department of Mothers' pensions. The woman who can mould and train young souls aright is so valuable an expert that to deprive her of the opportunity of developing young members of the society is to deprive the community of one of its highest assets. Hence Mothers' pensions should form part of the juvenile court system, and the granting of these pensions should be based solely upon character.

Where the home is abnormal because the parents are immoral, or weak either in morals or mentality, but the child is normal, the Juvenile Courts should be able to call upon the home finding or home placing organizations, usually designated Children's Aids, but such associations should be modern in every way. They should not be orphanages or big buildings herding children together, segregating them from their fellow citizens and marking them a class apart, but real home finding and home placing institutions whose principal and most valuable officers are their visitors who inspect, watch, and frequently visit the families and homes where children are placed regardless of the poverty or wealth or social standing of the adopting parents.

But the abnormal juvenile delinquents! Here is the real menace to society. Whether these children be in the normal home, or worse still, in the abnormal home, their very existence has gone unsuspected, until recently. It is only within the last few years that the "repeater", the "recividist" is being recognized as frequently the subnormal or abnormal child. Whatever the degree of feeblemindedness may be, this is the child upon whom the ordinary probation system or any effort at reformations based upon normal mentality is lost. The gradual realization that the child who appears again and again in court is not merely "born bad", incorrigibly vicious by nature, but really abnormal or subnormal, brings to light the need for another department in the juvenile court. Probation theories of the ordinary kind are wasted upon these cases. They lack the mentality to do right, they have no power of inhibition. Confused, harrassed, they stand in court pathetic figures, placed in a world too complex for their mental equipment, they are sore

puzzled by the requirements. They have little idea of what is wrong—all they know is that they are always in trouble, and whatever they do is wrong. They fall easily into two classes, the sullen, unattractive, and the amiable, weak—the first actually as helpless as the last, but the intentions of the latter are so pitifully good and they themselves so hopelessly unable to fulfill them.

Greatest of all menaces among these is the girl, the victim of any and every evil man or woman. Her moral offences generally begin early and she is soon debased and diseased. Her very youth makes her a greater source of danger because she comes and goes and leads others astray freely, her tender age rendering her unsuspected. As she falls lower and lower in the social scale she carries sorrow and disease wherever she wanders, incapable of reformation, she graduates from juvenile courts and Industrial Schools to police courts and gaols, finally to die in the gutter, having infected all with whom she came in contact.

Appreciation of right and wrong calls for mind but here there is no intellect to work upon. It is not a question of a mind gone astray but of a deficiency and lack. Her dulled intelligence is incapable of comprehending or truly apreciating the error and the danger of her ways, nor is she sufficiently developed to refuse the domination of stronger wills. In other words, it is hopeless to expect reformation where there is no mind to work upon. It requires brains and ability to be good. But it is only recently, very recently, that the sociologist is awakening to the fact that good intentions are not the sole requirement. Admonition, reprimand, exhortation fall upon dulled ears and bring only bewilderment and pain to the darkened intellect. Such methods are worse than useless; they are cruel. Callous indeed is the heart that is not touched by the unhappy plight of these poor unfortunates thrust into a world continually disapproving and punishing.

For them early recognition and special training is the only relief, a relief that humanity urges us to afford and enlightened selfishness demands the community should grant for its own protection.

The absolute need of recognition and special training for all abnormal children brings us to another vital necessity in the juvenile court—the psychologist. Psychology and psychiatry all play a highly important role in the juvenile court. Where the psychological examination, followed by scientific treatment for psychopathic and related conditions is absent juvenile courts lose splendid opportunities for service. Doubtless such courts obtain certain limited results, as has been graphically said, "the puppy of the police court", but they will never cure or prevent the constant drift of the subnormal into the ranks of the criminal classes.

Not only is the lot of the abnormal child rendered happier by segregation and special training but the whole body of society benefits the

more, nearly the whole number of its citizens approach to the normal standard, or where this is not possible, are set apart so that others who might do better may not be contaminated morally and physically. Only where the juvenile court system carries with it corollary departments, the probation office, the detention home, the Industrial School (that teaches not only morals but means of livelihood), the Mothers' pension bureau, and the psychological department to weed out those for whom special training and segregation must be provided, is it rendering full service to the community. Feebleminded offenders on probation or in industrial schools gain nothing themselves and corrupt others, hinder the work and prevent success with the normal minded. If they are sorted out and allotted to their own classes and institutions they become as useful as possible and as little of a menace as such as they can ever be, and given custodial care they are restrained from disseminating venereal disease or of propagating their own kind to the second and third generations.

In order to place the whole penal and reformative system upon a common sense, humane basis, following the juvenile court and its system should be the indeterminate sentence and parole system for adults, treatment for disease and for drug addicts.

Even the most sanguine cannot predict how far reaching may be the effect upon national life, the effect upon the next generation of our citizens, were Canada covered with a network of juvenile courts, complete in all departments, and all filling their highest functions. The source of supply for the ever-increasing ranks of the criminal and the prostitute would be cut off at the fountain head if no longer the juvenile delinquent be allowed to graduate into the police court and the gaol but is directed into the channels best adapted in each case for betterment, reformation and restraint.

After this, as naturally as comes dawn after night, and after dawn the noonday, will follow a real endeavour to reform the adult criminal. Under the warm light of reason and sympathy will melt away our present barbarous, antiquated and foolish penal methods, the prison garb, the silence system, the appalling opening of the doors at the end of the term to thrust the prisoner forth into a cold and angry world. All of this will be replaced by the indeterminate sentence, the prison wage for the re-establishment of the offender and the benefit of dependents, the parole system, the prison gate society to welcome and help re-entry into citizenship.

Heaven hasten the day when Canada relegates to the dark ages—where it belongs—punishment that looks not to reformation, but drives the offender further along the road to destruction. In the sun of common sense and understanding let us hope a flood of light may be poured upon our courts, our prisons and our penal system.

ACCOUNT OF WORK FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED IN HAMILTON, ONTARIO

BY T. H. WILLS, ESQ.,
President of the Ontario Association for the Care of the Feeble-Minded.

IN the autumn of 1916, the Executive of the Provincial Association for the Care of the Feeble-Minded recognized the desirability of having branch associations organized in all the cities throughout the Province; and at their request the Secretary (Dr. C. M. Hincks), wrote the respective mayors of 14 cities, requesting them to convene a public meeting to consider the suggestion.

At the Annual Meeting of the Association held in February 1917, he reported that in only one instance (viz., Fort William) had his communication been even acknowledged; and even in that case the authorities had declined to entertain the suggestion.

With a view to remedying this neglect, in one district at least, the writer suggested to Dr. Hincks, in April 1917, that a second letter should be despatched to this city; guaranteeing that at least the courtesy of a reply would be vouchsafed.

Dr. Hincks having intimated that the aforesaid suggestion had been carried into effect, a personal call was made upon the mayor forthwith to "dot the i's and cross the t's", of the missive in question.

The visit resulted in an invitation to wait upon the Board of Control at their next meeting, to explain the aims and objects of the Provincial Association, and the necessity for local support.

The reception proved to be a favourable one, and resulted in the matter being sent on to the Legislative Committee, with a view to the necessary action being taken.

A further interview with the Legislative Committee led to the adoption of the suggestion that a meeting be convened in the City Hall by personal invitation from the Mayor, on behalf of the Council; and that Dr. Helen MacMurchy and Dr. C. M. Hincks be requested to attend and address the meeting on the subject in question; the individual who had taken up the matter on behalf of the Provincial Executive, undertaking to personally see that the invitations were widely and judiciously distributed.

Some 300 invitations were sent out, to parliamentary representatives, members of the City Council, Educational bodies, inspectors and teachers; the clergy of all denominations; members of the medical profession; the Executive of business and fraternal organizations, and

of the Trades and Labour Council; recognized social-welfare workers of every grade, and others likely to be interested; with the result that considerably more than 100 were present at what proved to be the inaugural meeting of the Hamilton branch of the Provincial Association for the Care of the Feeble-Minded. Mayor Booker, who occupied the Chair, struck the key-note of sympathy in his introductory remarks.

Dr. Helen MacMurchy spoke in her usual forcible and convincing manner of the necessity for providing institutional care and special educational and manual training for those mentally deficient; and pointed out the economic advantages accruing to the community generally where such provision was made.

Dr. Hincks gave an interesting and illuminating account of the work carried on at the Psychiatric Clinic of the Toronto General Hospital during the past three years. He adduced statistics from the investigations made at that Clinic, proving that mental deficiency was an important factor in juvenile delinquency; and showed how two or three feeble-minded children of sexual abnormality had in more than one of their Toronto Schools been the source of moral contagion to an alarming extent. He felt justified in assuming that a similar investigation in Hamilton, would bring out facts sufficiently alarming to rouse the public conscience, with a resultant demand for remedial measures.

In conclusion, he expressed the hope that Hamilton would not be too proud to follow in the footsteps of Toronto, and form a local branch of the Provincial Association.

John Allan, M.L.A., considered it a question that should be dealt with by the Legislature at the earliest opportunity; and advocated the formation of a local association.

Mrs. Robert Evans and Mrs. P. D. Crerar referred to their Association with rescue work for more than two decades; and of how increasingly difficult the problem became where feeble-minded women and girls were concerned.

Rev. W. H. Sedgewick expressed the opinion that they had been sleeping upon the edge of a crater of a volcano. Every minister of every denomination would be glad to be afforded the opportunity of doing everything within his power to cope with the menace that had been thus brought to their notice.

Sheriff Middleton, Dr. R. Y. Parry and Dr. J. Roberts, M.H.O., also spoke briefly as to the necessity for dealing with the matter promptly and effectively.

T. H. Wills considered the question of the feeble-minded, a moral cancer in the body politic; and as such, drastic treatment was not only necessary but imperative. He moved that a Committee be appointed

to organize a local branch of the Provincial Association. The motion having been seconded by Mrs. Robert Evans, was unanimously adopted.

The mover thereupon proceeded to nominate what he designated a "hand-picked" Committee; "hand-picked", inasmuch as it included an active worker from practically every public body or organization of any standing in the city, and was thus comprised of some 50 representative citizens, all of whom had promised not only moral support but active co-operation.

At a meeting of this Committee held a few days later, the following officers were appointed: President, Judge Gauld; 1st Vice-President, Mrs. Robert Evans; 2nd Vice-President, Sheriff Middleton; 3rd Vice-President, Mrs. P. D. Crerar; 4th Vice-President, Dr. G. S. Glassco; 5th Vice-President, W. H. Lovering; 6th Vice-President, Mrs. N. Urquhart; Hon. Treasurer, Miss Hilda Savage; Hon. Secretary, T. H. Wills.

The constitution and bye-laws of the Provincial Association were adopted, with slight emendations to meet local requirements; and the following committees appointed; Finance, Publicity, Educational, Medical, Social Service.

The work of the local Association has been in the main devoted to educating the public opinion on this all-important question; and an unobtrusive but effective press campaign has been steadily conducted with the object of keeping its various phases before the community.

A deputation waited upon the Board of Education to enlist their active co-operation in the matter of providing special classes with specially qualified teachers for such children as were considered mentally deficient.

A sub-committee was appointed by the Board to deal with this matter from time to time as necessity arose, with very satisfactory results.

The following measures may, in addition, fairly be claimed as resulting; directly or indirectly, from the formation of this local branch:

A series of fortnightly addresses on Community Welfare, including addresses from Dr. C. M. Hincks on "The Feeble-Minded Problem", Dr. C. K. Clarke on "The Venereal Problem", Commissioner Boyd on "Juvenile Courts and Juvenile Delinquency".

The formation of an "Advisory Committee on Venereal Diseases".

The establishment of a Psychiatric Clinic, with a subsidy from the City Council.

A census (taken by the principals) of the feeble-minded children in the City Public Schools.

A similar census in the public schools of the County of Wentworth.

The establishment of an additional class for mentally deficient children at the Adelaide Hoodless School.

A healthy public opinion strongly in favour of the establishment of a Juvenile Court has been created; and in the near future this too may become *un fait accompli.*

At the request of the local Association the Hon. Mr. Justice Hodgins consented to hold a sitting of the Commission in this city and heard evidence from competent authorities on the Venereal problem.

A subsequent session was held by the Commissioner on the matter of Provision for the Care of the Feeble-Minded.

Several witnesses presented their views and personal experiences, dealing with both local and provincial requirements; and the following recommendations (which had previously been unanimously adopted by the local committee) were submitted to the Commissioner.

Recommendations from the Executive Committee of the Hamilton Branch of the Provincial Association for the Care of the Feeble Minded:

1. Residential homes for the care, training and employment of the mentally deficient, who are beyond school age, and who while allowed to be at large, are a danger or menace to the Community. Such homes to be provided by the Provincial authorities, but the municipalities and townships concerned to share the cost of maintenance of their respective inmates.

2. The establishment of special classes, with specially qualified teachers, in all urban districts, for mentally deficient children, attending school. All children, falling within this category, to be required to attend such classes.

3. The establishment of Psychiatric Clinics in all the larger centres.

4. Compulsory examination, at such clinics, of all children who may be considered by the principal of the school which they are attending (or by other duly recognized authority), to be mentally or morally deficient; and who, in consequence require a special course of training.

5. The establishment of Juvenile Courts.

6. The establishment of Medical Boards (as in the case of the insane), authorized to pronounce on the mentality of those whom duly recognized authorities consider should be placed under observation in schools or residential homes for the mentally deficient.

7. Residential Schools for the education and training of mentally deficient children of school age, who require to be under observation and restraint. (Provision and maintenance as in Clause 1).

Quite recently a deputation, headed by the Medical Health Officer, waited upon the Board of Education to urge that the work already carried on in the Dental Clinics attached to the schools be extended and that a complete dental survey be carried out under the personal direction of the dental staff of such clinics.

The deputation in question was accompanied by the Honorary Secretary of the local branch of the Provincial Association for the Care of the Feeble-Minded, who requested that facilities should be provided for a mental survey and adduced several arguments in favour of the adoption of such a course.

He intimated that Drs. C. K. Clarke and C. M. Hincks (representing the Canadian National Committee for Mental Hygiene) would undertake to conduct such a survey if invited by the Board to do so.

The Trustees referred the matter to the two School Inspectors and the school Principals, to formulate a scheme that would facilitate such a survey without unduly interfering with the ordinary school routine.

It would appear, therefore, that although much remains to be done before Hamilton in any way approaches the ideal State conditions outlined by Dr. Walter Fernald, in his contribution to the July issue of the CANADIAN JOURNAL OF MENTAL HYGIENE, something has been done to awaken local interest and improve local conditions and it is anticipated that the Report to be presented to the Provincial Legislature by Mr. Justice Hodgins in the near future and the recommendations likely to be contained therein, will give a fresh impetus to the work of the Association.

ABSTRACTS

Four Million Dollars for the Fight Against Venereal Diseases, by H. H. Moore. The passage by the United States Congress in July 1918, of the Chamberlain-Kahn bill made available for the fight against venereal diseases in civilian communities the sum of four million, one hundred thousand dollars.

Section 1 creates an Interdepartmental Social Hygiene Board to consist of the Secretary of War, the Secretary of the Navy, and the Secretary of the Treasury, and the Surgeons General of the Army, Navy, and Public Health Service; or of representatives designated by the respective secretaries; the duties of the said board to be: (1) to recommend rules for expenditure of $1,000,000, allotted to the states for the purposes authorized under section 2, of this chapter; (2) to select the institutions and fix allotments under section 6; (3) to recommend such general measures as may seem necessary to carry out efficiently the purposes of this chapter; (4) to direct the expenditure of the sum of $100,000 referred to in section 7.

Section 2 authorizes the Secretary of War and the Secretary of the Navy to adopt measures assisting the states in caring for diseased persons (in detention homes) in order to protect from venereal infection soldiers and sailors of the United States.

Section 3 establishes in the Bureau of the Public Health Service a Division of Venereal Diseases.

Section 4 provides that the duties of the Division of Venereal Diseases be: (1) to study and investigate the cause, treatment, and prevention of venereal diseases; (2) to co-operate with state departments of health for the prevention and control of such diseases within the states; and (3) to control and prevent the spread of these diseases in interstate traffic.

Section 5 appropriates $1,000,000 to be expended in carrying out the provisions of section 2.

Section 6 appropriates $1,000,000 annually for two years to be allotted to the states on the basis of population for the use of their departments of health in the prevention, control, and treatment of venereal diseases, the payment to each state for the fiscal year beginning July 1st, 1919, conditioned on the state's raising an equal amount; but payment for the fiscal year beginning July 1st, 1918, to be without such condition. It further appropriates $100,000 annually for two years to be paid to suitable institutions for scientific research for the purposes of discovering more effective medical measures in the prevention and treatment of venereal diseases. It further appropriates $300,000 annually for two

years to be paid to institutions qualified for scientific research for the purpose of discovering and developing more effective educational measures in the prevention of venereal diseases, and for the purpose of sociological and psychological research related thereto.

Section 7 appropriates $200,000 to defray the expenses of establishing and maintaining the Division of Venereal Diseases; and appropriates $100,000, to be used under the direction of the Interdepartmental Social Hygiene Board for any purpose for which any of the appropriations made by this chapter are available.

Section 8 provides that the terms "state" and "states" used in this chapter include the District of Columbia.

Social Hygiene, January, 1919.

The Prevention of Insanity

The State and the Insane, by Richard H. Hutchings, M.D. This article is a vigorous attack upon the present attitude of the State towards the insane. "The State, in the exercise of its monopoly of the treatment of the insane, says who shall be treated and when the treatment shall begin. He must be dangerous, he must be suicidal, the public peace and welfare must be menaced by his presence, therefore in the majority of cases he must be incurable. It mattered not that the patient himself felt that something was going wrong with his mind, and fearful for his sanity knocked at the door of the asylum and asked for help. 'No, indeed', he was told. 'We only take in lunatics; the fact that you asked for admission indicates that you have reason and judgment. Go away until you become certifiable'". This picture, if not strictly accurate, as voluntary admissions to institutions are permitted in some of the American States and in the British Islands, is hardly a caricature of the state of things in times comparatively recent, and even now provision for the care of border line cases is everywhere miserably inadequate. The whole subject needs re-thinking. The State, the Law Courts, popular opinion long thought that a lunatic was simply a lunatic *sans phrase*, dangerous to himself and to others, needing incarceration, probably incurable. This is a travesty of the facts. The public was partly to blame, because it was felt to be a disgrace to have a relative in an asylum and recourse to such institutions was regarded as a *dernier ressort*. The curable stage of mental affliction was generally allowed to pass without effective treatment. Now we know better. Psychiatry has established its right to be regarded as a recognized branch of science. Mental affections present every grade of severity and many of them are curable. Our whole machinery needs re-casting. Some means must be devised for dealing with the many cases which are hovering on the line—always

difficult of demarcation—which separates the sane from the insane. War neuroses have accentuated the necessity of dealing effectively with such cases. Dr. Hutchings says forcibly: "If we could stop thinking about insanity and provide hospitals, dispensaries and clinics for the treatment of mental illness of all degrees, we should, for a time at least, have more work to do, but we should make some real progress where now we are marking time".

General hospitals will find it necessary in the not distant future to provide psychiatric clinics, where patients who present signs of mental instability could be examined and advised. The work "asylum" with all its opprobrious connotation, should be dropped and the title "mental hospital" substituted. Voluntary admissions should be permitted and regularized. Mental ailments should cease to be regarded with ignorant aversion or superstitious fear. We have in large measure reformed the treatment of insane patients with immense benefit to the insane. We look back with horror to the strait waistcoats, the solitary cells and the flagellations of former epochs. But we have not yet cleared our minds upon the whole subject of mental affections. Here, as always, progress can only be gained by clear thinking.

The Chicago Medical Recorder, April 1919, pp. 143-150.

Family Snares

Heredity in Feeble-Mindedness is a very able article, by Dr. George Ordahl, dealing with 50 families known to contain one or more children reported to be defective in intelligence. Unfortunately, the examination was incomplete, 20 fathers and 3 mothers not being examined, as also a considerable number of children reported normal by officials and teachers. These omissions definitely minimize the value of the report. The findings are curious. Of the nine idiots recorded in nine families, 15 parents were examined and only two were found to be defective, yet of the 25 imbeciles in 18 families 20 parents (number examined not stated, but apparently 26) were defective. Of the children 59 out of 219—note the high proportion—were dead. In 13 families where both parents were defective—type of defect not being stated—eight children were classified as "normal", but no statement is made as to the source of the information. In view of the repeated suggestion that two parents mentally defective by heredity and not by disease or accident always have mentally defective children, a more definite and thorough examination of every important group should have been made. The result is that, interesting as the study is, the results are suggestive rather than determinative. The final conclusion is that the "histories of the 50 families indicate that such persons as are represented by the parents studied can be

detected by expert means in the early years of their school life". Yet Table II shows nine families where both parents are normal.

Training School Bulletin, New York, March-April, 1919, pp. 2-16.

Is Immigration Eugenic?

Immigration Restriction and World Eugenics, by Prescott F. Hall. Immigration tends to sterilize the people on the higher social and economic levels who are already in the country. The population of the United States would have been larger to-day if there had been no immigration since 1820. The low-class immigrants have not only diminished the numbers of the natives, but have also dissipated the energies of the latter by introducing elements of conflict into the nation, and thus prevented the development of many of those kinds of ability which are most worth cultivation. Left to themselves in their own habitat the inferior stocks would naturally decrease, while the superior ones would promote institutions which would be of the greatest advantage to the former, who, as far as their natural endowments allow them, progress mainly by imitation and emulation.

Journal of Heredity, March, 1919, pp. 125-127.

Disease and Natural Selection. The report of H. C. and M. A. Solomon in Mental Hygiene for January, 1918, contains interesting evidence of the selective effects of syphilis. Of 247 families, 34 per cent. had no children. In addition 20 per cent. had abortions, miscarriages and stillbirths, and dead children occurred also in 20 per cent. As a result the average number of living children is only 1.3. It is not here stated whether this refers to completed families, but the figure is compared to the average of 4.4 for the same vicinity obtained from the U.S. census report.

Journal of Heredity, December, 1918.

Some Present Aspects of Immigration. In the fourth report of the Committee on Immigration of the American Genetic Association, that body expresses itself as heartily in favour of the provisions of the new Immigration Bill, for the most effective exclusion and deportation of unfit aliens. The immigration of inferior individuals or sons is of great importance to the United States, into which the annual immigration before the war amounted to nearly a million and a half. It is no less important to the British Empire, and it is sincerely to be hoped that measures at least as strong as those of the United States will be taken to prevent the contamination of our own race.

Journal of Heredity, February, 1919.

Better American Families, by Wilhelmina E. Key. This interesting series of family histories shows well the continuity of ability through various members of mixed families. The different branches of the same family show immense differences according to the segregation of hereditary factors, and the qualities of those with whom they intermarry.

Journal of Heredity, February, 1919.

Good Qualities are Correlated, by F. A .Woods. This article summarizes a number of researches and opinions all tending to show that desirable qualities in mankind are in fact naturally correlated: and that there is therefore no ground for the suspicion that eugenic measures designed to further one group of qualities might inadvertently injure others equally desirable.

Journal of Heredity, February, 1919.

Race Mixture in Hawaii, Second Series, by Vaughan McLangley. Detailed statistics are given of marriages between the numerous distinct races inhabiting these islands. The undesirable effects of race mixture, especially on the part of Europeans, is strongly emphasised.

Journal of Heredity, February, 1919.

Red Cross Knowledge of and Opinion on Venereal Diseases. Unanimous conclusions were arrived at by experts at Cannes—among them Brevet-Colonel L. V. Harrison, Dr. Menzies and Sir Arthur Newsholme—who, on April 1st, issued a report on venereal diseases for the Red Cross Societies. The recommendations included the repression of street soliciting and of prostitution as a business, control of the drink traffic and of places of rest and refreshment which lend themselves to vicious uses, the isolation of infected individuals, the establishment of dispensaries and free diagnosis and treatment. The policy of the C.D. Acts was repudiated: and measures were suggested for making public opinion and the social environment unfavourable to sexual vice, *e.g.*, early marriage, the instruction of children in the facts of reproduction, and the education of men and women belonging to the medical and nursing professions in public health principles.

The Healy-Fernald Picture Completion Test as a Test of the Perception of the Comic, by Miriam A. Walker and M. F. Washburn. While examining the Healy-Fernald Picture Completion Test its possibilities as an apparatus for investigating the perception of the comic occurred to the senior author of this study. The picture, it will be remembered, represents a variety of independent occurrences, and in the representation of each some essential object is missing. A number of blocks are supplied which can be fitted into the empty spaces where the missing objects have been: some of these blocks bear the missing pictures,

others have pictures of irrelevant objects. When the puzzle is used as originally intended, the problem for the child tested is to find and put in place the proper object for each episodic picture. Thus in the blank space between the boys whose attitudes show that they are playing football the square block bearing the picture of a football must be fitted; the space in front of the child who is holding a saucer of milk must be filled in with the picture of the approaching cat; below the boy dropping an apple out of a tree must go the picture of the basket of apples; opposite the fighting rooster must go the other fighting rooster; the obviously terrified boy must have the savage dog supplied, and so on. There are ten such episodes. The drawings themselves are comic; the exaggerated expressions make the effect amusing even when the missing pieces are correctly supplied.

But in some of the episodes at least the effect is much funnier if a wrong object is substituted; and this suggested the use of the puzzle as a test of the comic. If instead of the football there is put the picture of a crying baby, which thus appears to be tossed to and fro; if instead of the apple basket a comfortably sleeping cat appears about to be hit by the falling apple; if a pile of school books is supplied in place of the dog from which the small boy flees in horror; a new joy is given to contemplation of the varied scene.

Now all authorities agree that a situation to be comic must involve an element of incongruity. We may however perhaps distinguish as belonging to different intellectual levels the comic that is based on mere incongruity, such as we find in nonsense rhymes, and that where the incongruity is combined with appropriateness and thus with an element of wit. Thus to fit in a picture of a robin instead of the savage dog so that the small boy flees from a harmless bird, is to make a merely incongruous combination; to put in the bundle of schoolbooks introduces the element of appropriateness and wit, since it hits at the too frequent emotional attitude of small boys towards schoolbooks. To put in place of the football a lighted candle gives mere incongruity; to put in the crying baby may do violence to the maternal instinct, but the baby's expression is undoubtedly appropriate. It seemed worth while to investigate whether any significant differences exist between individuals in their susceptibility to the humour of the purely incongruous and that of the incongruous which involves also the appropriate.

The following method was used. For each of the vacant squares on the board three picture squares were selected. One of these was the appropriate one, which logically completed the picture; one formed a merely incongruous combination with the picture; one was intended to appeal by an element of appropriateness in the midst of incongruity to a more intellectual sense of humour. It was not possible to find a com-

pletion that fulfilled this condition for all the blank spaces on the board. The picture squares that were used as "merely incongruous" were as follows: for the broken window, cherries; for the barking dog, the robin; for the cat, the old shoe; for the football, the candle; for the little girl's hat, the pumpkin; for the cartwheel, the bunch of flowers; for the basket of apples, the pipe; for the piece of wood, the pocket-book; for the bird, the glove; for the rooster, the bottle of milk. The "really funny", as opposed to "merely incongruous" blocks, were as follows: for the dog, the bundle of books; for the football, the crying baby; for the basket of apples, the sleeping cat; for the rooster, the clock (which gave the other rooster the air of being horrified to discover how late it was; perhaps a rather subtle bit of humour when compared with the baby as football). Recognizing that the following combinations were not really funny, we used them for want of anything better in the remaining episodes: for the broken window, the whole window; for the cat, the fish (our observers, as will appear, thought this a highly humorous combination); for the hat, the bottle of medicine; for the cartwheel, the necktie; for the piece of wood, the cup; and for the bird, the mouse (this also appealed to our observer's sense of humour).

The following directions were given to the observer: "I am going to put three blocks successively in each of these squares, and I want you to assign a numerical value, from 1 to 5, 5 being the highest, for the degree of funniness of each of the blocks". The order followed was: the appropriate block; the "really funny" block; the "merely incongruous" block.

Eighty young women college students, eighteen seventh grade boys and girls, and eighteen fourth grade boys and girls were the observers. Out of the data collected, several rather interesting conclusions and suggestions for further work emerge. (1) What may be called the intensity of the reaction to the comic of the type presented in these experiments is greatest in the fourth grade children, less in the seventh grade children and least in the adults. This factor of intensity may be measured by the average numerical value assigned to the funniness of each of the combinations, by each of the three groups of observers. The college students found an average numerical value of three or above for six combinations only; the baby for the football (3.9); the mouse for the bird (3.6); the fish for the cat (3.5); the sleeping cat for the basket of apples (3.5); the school-books for the dog (3.4); and the clock for the rooster (3.4). The seventh grade children estimated the funniness of eight of the combinations at an average of three or above; the baby for the football (4.2); the sleeping cat for the basket of apples (3.8); the mouse for the bird (3.6); the broken window in its proper place (3.5); the barking dog in its proper place (3.4); the cup for the piece of wood

(3.3); rooster in its proper place (3.1), and the necktie for the waggon-wheel (3.1). The fourth grade children estimated ten combinations at an average of three or over; baby for football (4.6); rooster in proper place (4.3); cat for apples (4); mouse for bird (4); wheel in proper place (3.8); cat in proper place (3.5); dog in proper place (3.4); broken window in proper place (3.2); clock for rooster (3.1); necktie for wheel (3).

(2) The pictures in their appropriate context were funnier to the fourth grade children than to the seventh grade children, and to the seventh grade children than to the college girls. The average score for all the appropriate pictures was for the fourth grade group (3.14); for the seventh grade group (2.54); for the college girls (1.73). Since these figures because of the small number (18) in each of the seventh grade and fourth grade groups, are not very significant, they may be supplemented by the statements that in the seventh grade there were thirty-five cases where the appropriate picture was held to be funnier than either the "really funny" or "merely incongruous"; in the fourth grade there were seventy-four such cases. In four groups of eighteen college girls each, taken in the random order in which they were experimented upon, the number of such cases was 22, 24, 36 and 13 respectively. The distribution of the tendency to find the appropriate picture funnier than any other may be indicated by the following figures: In the fourth grade three observers gave seven cases each where the appropriate picture was judged funniest; one observer gave six such cases; eight observers gave five cases; two gave four cases; three gave three cases; two gave two cases; none gave only one case, one gave no case. In the seventh grade, no observers gave either seven, six or five cases; four gave four cases each; three three cases each; four two cases; two one case; and five no cases. In Group I, college girls, one gave five cases; one four cases; one three cases; two two cases; six one case; seven no cases. In Group II, college girls, one gave five cases; two four cases; one three cases; two two cases; four one case; eight no cases. In Group III, college girls, one gave six cases; two five cases; three four cases; one three cases; two two cases; one one case; eight no cases. In Group IV, college girls, none gave four or more cases; two gave three cases; two two cases; one one case; eleven no cases. It would seem plausible to suppose that finding the appropriate picture especially funny may indicate a certain naive quality of mind, a tendency not to be bored by commonplace situations, which would be oftener found in young children.

(3) A more unexpected result is that mere incongruity is decidedly funnier to seventh grade children than to either fourth grade children or adults. The average numerical value assigned to the pictures which were merely incongruous in their setting was for the fourth grade (2.59); for the seventh grade (3.34); for the college girls (2.65). There were in

the fourth grade group forty-two cases where the merely incongruous picture was thought to be the funniest completion; in the seventh grade there were seventy such cases, and in the four groups of college girls the numbers were forty-four, forty-one, forty-eight and forty-three respectively. In the fourth grade group, there was no observer who found the merely incongruous picture the funniest completion in more than four cases out of the possible ten; there were two who found it so in four cases; five who found it so in three cases; eight who found it so in two cases; three who found it so in one case. In the seventh grade, there were three observers who found the merely incongruous picture funniest in six cases out of the ten; two who found it so in five cases, four in four cases; three in three cases; three in two cases; no one who found the incongruous picture funniest in only one or in no case. In the first group of college girls, two found the incongruous picture funniest in six cases; no one in five; three in four cases; two in three cases; four in one case; two never. In Group II, college girls, no one found the incongruous picture funniest in six cases; two so found it in five cases; three in four cases; two in three cases; four in two cases; four in one case; two never. In Group III, college girls, one observer found the merely incongruous picture funniest in seven cases; no one in six cases; one in five cases; two in four cases; three in three cases; six in two cases; two in one case; two never. In Group IV, college girls, one observer found the incongruous picture funniest in seven cases; no one in six cases; two in five cases; one in four cases; four in three cases; four in two cases; two in one case, three never.

It will be seen that there is much more individual variation in the taste for the "purely incongruous" style of humour among the adults than among the children. It is obviously desirable to extend the experiment to a much larger number of fourth and seventh grade children, and this we plan to do.

The American Journal of Psychology, July, 1919.

THE RESULTS OF CERTAIN STANDARD MENTAL TESTS AS RELATED TO THE ACADEMIC RECORDS OF COLLEGE SENIORS

By Hermine Baum, Mirian Litchfield, and M. F. Washburn.

The tests used were the following:

(1) The Hard Opposite Test of Woodworth and Wells. The results were stated in terms of the average time for a single correct response.

(2) The Analogies Test, lists A and B, of the Woodworth and Wells set; the results were stated in terms of the mean between the average

time for a single correct response in A and that for a single correct response in B.

(3) The Substitution Test, the Woodworth and Wells form, with the star, circle, square, cross and triangle. The results were stated in terms of an index of efficiency, accuracy being reckoned by subtracting for each error two from a total of 100, and the time required for the whole sheet being divided by the index of accuracy thus obtained.

(4) The Cancellation Test, the form beginning hplg or that beginning zcyu a's being cancelled. The results were stated in the form of the index of efficiency, for the work-limit method: 100 times the index of accuracy divided by the time; the index of accuracy being found by dividing the number of a's crossed by the number on the page.

(5) Information Test. This was the familiar Whipple list of words, beginning "ageratum". Since an observer may often think he can define a word when he cannot, and his opinion can be reputed only by a laborious criticism of definitions, we took as the measure of an individual's information the number of words on this list that were marked N, as being wholly new and unfamiliar to her. One is not likely to be mistaken on such a point as this.

No preliminary practice was given on any of the tests except the Opposites and the Analogies Tests, where examples were given.

The observers were chosen on the following principle. They were all Vassar students in the second semester of their senior year. At this period the Dean's Office has on record for each girl a numerical value which represents both the quantity and the quality of her work for the seven semesters she has completed. For each semester hour of work done of grade A, she receives 5 points of credit; each hour of B grade work gives her 3 points; each hour of C work 2 points; each hour of D work (just passing) one point. The object of our study was to see how well the work of a student, thus measured, correlated with her performance in the above tests.

The study may be divided into two parts:

I. Thirty-eight seniors were chosen whose records formed a fairly continuous scale from the highest to the lowest in the class. The plan was to have their numerical standings differ by four points. For the lowest twenty-three on the scale, this was actually the case; in the upper half of the scale there was occasionally a greater distance between the ranking of one individual and the next above or below her. Beside this ranking as regards academic performance we set the rankings of the students in the various tests, and calculated rank difference correlations. The results were as follows—

Index of	Correlation	between	Cancellation	and	Academic	Rank,	+.06, P.E. .11
"	"	"	Substitution	"	"	"	+.03, P.E. .11
"	"	"	Opposites	"	"	"	+.30, P.E. .09
"	"	"	Analogies	"	"	"	+.39, P.E. .99
"	"	"	Analogies and Opposites combined	"	"	"	+.40, P.E. .09
"	"	"	Information	"	"	"	+.33, P.E. .09

Considering the very slight differences in academic rank on which the scale of academic ranks was based, the Analogies, Opposites, and Information Tests make a good showing.

II. Two groups of twenty-five students each were chosen. The academic ranks of all in Group I were represented by numerical values over 350; the ranks of those in Group II were represented by numerical values under 210.

The results of the tests for these two groups, I containing the seniors with best records, II those with poorest records, were as follows:

Cancellation: average index of efficiency, Group I, .69, m.v. 11.

Cancellation: average index of efficiency, Group II, .74, m.v. 15.

The group of lower academic standing did somewhat better than that of higher academic standing. The distribution of individual scores confirms this: the numbers were as follows. Above 1, in Group I, 1; in Group II, 1. Between .9 and 1, Group I, 5; Group II, 3. Between 8 and 9, Group I, 3; Group II, 6. Between 7 and 8, Group I, 4; Group II, 7. Between 6 and 7, Group I, 10; Group II, 4. Between .5 and .6, Group I, 2; Group II, 3. Below .5, Group I, none; Group II, 1.

Substitution: average index of efficiency, Group I, 1.31, m.v. .13.

Substitution: average index of efficiency, Group II, 1.34, m.v. .17.

The smaller this index, the better the performance. Here the group of higher academic standing did a very little better. The distribution of individual scores is in accordance. The number of scores above 1.7 was for Group I, none; for Group II, 1. Scores between 1.6 and 1.7 were made by two observers in Group I; by three in Group II. Scores between 1.5 and 1.6 were made by four in Group I and by three in Group II. Scores between 1.4 and 1.5 were made by one in Group I and by five in Group II. Scores between 1.3 and 1.4 were made by six in Group I and by two in Group II. Scores between 1.2 and 1.3 were made by six in Group I and by three in Group II. Scores between 1.1 and 1.2 were made by four in Group I and by six in Group II. Scores between 1 and 1.1 were made by two in Group I and by none in Group II. Scores between .9 and 1 were made by none in Group I and by two in Group II.

Opposites. In this test, the smaller the score the better the performance.

Average time of a correct response, Group I, 2.87, m.v. .73.

Average time of a correct response, Group II, 3.58, m.v. 1.37.

Here the group of a superior academic standing does distinctly better than that of a poorer academic standing, and the distribution of cases bears this out. Scores of between 1 and 2 seconds, that is, the best scores, were made by four from Group I and by two from Group II. Scores between 2 and 3 seconds were made by sixteen from Group I and by seven from Group II. Scores between 3 and 4 seconds were made by four from Group I and by seven from Group II. Scores between 4 and 5 seconds were made by one from Group II and by two from Group II. Scores above 5 seconds were made by no one in Group I, and by seven persons from Group II.

Analogies. Here also the smaller the score the better the performance.

Average time of a correct response, Group I, 2.46, m.v. .26.

Average time of a correct response, Group II, 2.62, m.v. .30.

The better group, academically, is better in the test than the poorer group academically, though the difference is not so marked as in the case of the Opposites Test. The distribution of scores is very scattering and may be summarized by saying that scores better than 2.5 seconds were made by 56% of the observers in Group I and by 36% of observers in Group II; while scores poorer than 3 seconds were made by 12% of Group I and by 20% of Group II.

Information. Since this test was scored by the number of words new to the observer, the smaller numbers indicate the better performances.

Average number of new words, Group I, 31, m.v. .8.

Average number of new words, Group II, 37, m.v. .78.

An advantage on the part of a superior group in academic standing appears. Fifty-two per cent. of the observers in Group I found less than 30 new words; 28% of Group II found less than 30 new words. On the other hand, 36% of Group I and 40% of Group II found more than 40 new words, so the difference between the groups seemed to be that there were fewer noticeably good vocabularies in the poorer academic group, but about the same number of noticeably poor vocabularies in the two groups.

The net result of the study is that the Cancellation Test and the Substitution Test do not serve at all to differentiate the best from the poorest students in a group all of whom are up to the standard required for graduation from college; and that while neither the Opposites Test not the Analogies Test serves entirely to separate such groups, there is a distinct correlation in the case of both between test performance and academic record. The number of words in the Whipple Information Test which are new to a student is correlated with her academic record; the best records in this test are largely made by students of the best academic standing, but some noticeably poor records are made by such students.

The American Journal of Psychology, July, 1919.

THE CARE OF MILITARY MENTAL CASES*

A PAPER with this title was presented by Major E. H. Young, in charge of the Hospital for Insane Soldiers at Cobourg, Ontario. As a report of definite work done of a practical nature, no paper read at the meeting of the Canadian Medical Association exceeded this one in value.

Dr. Young said that the war was of special importance from a psychiatric standpoint; but not in the production of novel symptoms or syndromes. In the army these are the same as seen in civilian institutions. We have been accumulating an overwhelming mass of clinical material under peculiarly favourable circumstances for observation; the effect of which will be to stimulate interest in psychical disorders. A military psychiatrist has many advantages. In civil life a psychopath can live in harmony with his environment if accustomed to it, and remains in it until after his psychosis has made considerable advance. Some go through life without seeing a psychiatrist or an asylum for insane, although they may be suffering from dementia praecox or other form of insanity. Then, when slight symptoms of illness occur, the relatives and family physician feel that there is some stigma, they meet the condition fairly in the face. They put off the inevitable as far as possible. In the Army it is the opposite of this. There is an unusual demand placed upon the adaptability of the soldiers; so any unsuspecting weaknesses are soon brought to light in that new environment. Officers and non-commissioned officers quickly notice these weaknesses and have a peculiar method of dealing with them, in a way that does not apply to any other organization. The officers try to correct these weaknesses by turning the limelight upon them. If anyone has taken training at Shorncliffe who has any peculiarity or weakness, he will be able to appreciate what I say in this regard. You will still remember what the sergeant-major said about the stomach, etc. That method is quite correct and works well with regard to the normal individual. But the psychopath cannot stand it at all. It drives him to avoid the company of other people and brings him into constant conflict with military law; and the unit medical officer realizes the dangers of a psychical infection to men in his unit spreading to other cases. He regards the man as insane and makes an effort to quickly get rid of him. He gets him under observation as soon as possible. When the presence of a psychosis is recognized in civilian life, there is a good deal of medico-legal form to be gone through with, stigmatizing to the individual. In the army the procedure for admission to the hospital is as easy for mental cases as for one with pul-

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monary or cardiac lesion. This military system operates to get the patient under treatment when treatment is most likely to be effective.

The Cobourg Military Hospital for psychopathic cases for the C.A.M.C. is the only one of the sort in Canada.

It has 425 beds. It receives most of its cases from other military hospitals. Overseas the cases are taken over by the medical officers and skilled N.C.O's. detailed from the hospital. We take charge of these cases right at embarkation.

They are assigned to a suitable ward. All documents are completed in the train before the patient arrives. Admission is completed expeditiously and without formality.

All patients are put to bed and remain there until seen by the doctor, who prescribes treatment. No patient exhibiting manifestation of insanity at all conspicuously is allowed to go about. The symptoms soon abate. This is good for the patient himself and for the other patients.

The therapeutic facilities it is not necessary to describe—pretty much the same as in other military hospitals. There are no bars, no padded rooms; no sound-proof rooms, no straight jackets. We have the full equipment for ordinary medical, surgical and special-sense services, as well as laboratory facilities. We have also the necessary dentists and facilities for hydrotherapeutic, electrical treatment, X-ray work and medical gymnastics. We are able to make it resemble a general hospital: that organization is kept in view. We have several medical officers on the staff to give daily medical attention to each patient. All wards are in charge of nursing sisters, day and night. There is an absence of violence and unseemly conduct. It surprises the new patient to find that he is being cared for by a woman. When you consider that the average medical officer in a hospital for the insane has anywhere from 400 to 600 patients to attend to, you can imagine the difference where there are seven medical officers to a population of 236 patients (at the present time). Occupation courses are given under the care of the employees of the Soldiers' Civil Re-establishment Department. There are three grades: bedside, ward work, and employment in the workshops. Efforts are being made to have the patients progress from the lower to the higher grades. The same personnel furnishes the amusement. This work is of great value in keeping the patients from becoming melancholy. It is therapeutic in its nature. The amount is prescribed by the medical officer and the effects are recorded.

Instead of having to consider the effect of the industries on the cost of maintenance, as is done in ordinary hospitals for the insane, no difference is made in respect to those military cases. They are accorded the same privileges as other classes in regard to special consultants, *e.g.*, to cope with dental conditions, two officers from the Canadian Army Dental

Corps. Most of them are in attendance, and are kept busy. Asylums have no dentists on their staff, though some of them have 1,200 patients. There is no doubt about the importance of mouth infections. Infections of every kind enter into the causation of the psychoses. The advanced case of dementia precox is supplied with an artificial limb, just as the limbless soldier is, who has no psychosis. The effects of this treatment are reflected in the results obtained.

The general public takes a great interest in our work. These patients share with the other soldiers the interest of the public. Members of the Red Cross societies and of the Soldiers' Civil Re-establishment and other local organizations have contributed generously of their time and means for the welfare and contentment of the patients. Free mingling with the public is encouraged; it prevents institutionalism; it dispels all feeling of separation from the outside world. Those in charge of the many civil institutions complain that they cannot adopt this policy owing to the comparative inaccessibility of the hospitals and the apathy of the general public.

No patient is discharged until the opinion of the medical staff is secured—the standing medical board. Is he fit to go back to civil life, or under the care of the Soldiers' Civil Re-establishment, or shall he be admitted to a hospital for insane? It is through the co-operation of the S.C.R. that the C.A.M.C. have still supervision from the time they leave the borderland throughout the entire course of their disease. Eight hundred cases have appeared before the board: 400 have been sent back to civil life.

No serious accident has marred our history under non-restraint. We have carried out further than ever before the care of these patients as though in a general hospital with a general hospital organization. Twelve hundred cases have been admitted and cared for: no suicide, no homicide, or other serious happening. Our work has been carried on with no inconvenience to our neighbours. In Canada we have to-day an acute psychiatric problem. In the larger general hospitals there should be a psychiatric department. A more intimate association with the other branches of medicine is necessary for the elucidation of its problems. If the C.A.M.C. can satisfactorily take care of mental cases, there is no reason to suppose that there is any insurmountable object in carrying on such a work in connection with any large general hospital. Only in this way can the civilian insane obtain the same advantages in regard to humane and rational treatment as the military cases receive.

After thirteen years in this work, I must say that I have never been in an institution where there were as good facilities for treating these classes of cases as had been provided by the C.A.M.C. for these insane soldiers.

Twenty-three Serial Tests of Intelligence and Their Intercorrelations, by L. M. Terman and Mary B. Camberlain. This is an account of work done with reference to a revised intelligence scale for individual examination. It contains much detail that is not suitable for summary, but should be studied by those concerned with individual mental examinations. The tests embody not many novel features, but the publication of the large number of individual test items is of considerable value, and especially suggestive for the formal examination of mental cases. A table is given showing the correlation of each of the tests with one another and with the Stanford-Binet mental age. An idea of the sorts of tests may be given by the following enumeration of the names assigned them: picture naming; oral reading, origins, time orientation, direction orientation, special concepts, sentence memory, digits reversed, mental arithmetic, similarities, differences, opposites, absurd pictures, absurd statements, picture interpretation, resourcefulness (judgment), finding reasons, ball and field, finding shortest road. Differences, absurd statements, and finding reasons show the highest correlations, 90, with "mental age".

Journal Appl. Psychol., 1918, 2, 341-354.

A Standardization of Certain Opposites Tests, by Harry A. Greene. A list is given of eighty stimulus words, standardized according to responses from 700-900 subjects. Point values ranging from .5 to 2.0 are assigned to the individual words. The sum of possible credits for the complete list of 100. Quotation is also made of the responses to which full credit is allowed, and those earning half credit.

Journ. Educ. Psychol., 1918, 9, 559-566.

The Vocabulary Test as a Measure of Intelligence, by L. M. Terman. Terman adduces statistical data in rebuttal of various criticisms of the vocabulary test that was introduced as a part of the Stanford scale. It results that correlation of .91 appears between vocabulary and mental age in a group of 631 school children. Probable error of mental age calculated from vocabulary alone is 9.6 months in the case of school children, and about 12 months in the case of various groups of adults. Children from foreign language homes are at considerable disadvantage in this test for the earliest years of school life, but this difference is unimportant after the mental age of twelve years. Median vocabulary is about the same for boys and girls, and the curve of medians for successive mental ages is almost a straight line. Five different tests with 65 students correlated with an average of .77. The correlation of the average score in the five tests with the average of university class work was .28. Errors in scoring are negligible with adequately trained examiners.

Journ. Educ. Psychol., 1918, 7, 452-466.

Some Data on the Binet Test of Naming Words, by L. M. Terman. This test concerns the number of words named in a given period, the usual period being three minutes. In this form, 480 school children showed a correlation of .535 with mental age. The average probable error between mental ages of 8 and 11 years, is one year, *i.e.*, the test deviates by so much from the scale as a whole. Corresponding probable error in the vocabulary test is $9\frac{1}{2}$ months. A one-minute interval seems to constitute as good a measure as three minutes. Correlation with mental age, and probable error, are approximately the same as with three minutes. It is suggested that the time be shortened to one minute, 28 words being required for a pass at year X. There is a certain tendency for bright children to maintain the initial speed of giving words better than dull ones. For 360 children, the correlation between vocabulary and number of words named was .487. It is suggested that the test be made with eyes closed, owing to tendency to name objects in the room, which of course differ according to circumstance. In children at school for three or four years, the test is not seriously vitiated by foreign language in the home.

Journ. Educ. Psychol., 1919, 10, 29-35.

NOTES AND NEWS

NEW YORK STATE.—NEED STATE-WIDE SYSTEM OF MENTAL HEALTH CLINICS

STATE Departments Should Co-operate to Make Diagnosis and Treatment Facilities Available in all Localities. Among the proposals made by the State Commission for Mental Defectives in its report submitted to the Governor and the 1919 Legislature was one for a series of State-wide joint clinics for the out-patient diagnosis and treatment of mental diseases and defects.

In accordance with this proposal, plans are now being made for the establishment and operation of such clinics in various parts of the State. Dr. Pearce Bailey, Chairman, and Dr. William C. Sandy, Psychiatrist of the Commission, are actively interested in the project. It is hoped that one or more of the joint clinics will be started within a month.

Clinics of this sort have been made use of by the State Hospital Commission for a number of years and there are now about thirty such clinics in connection with the State hospitals. It is obvious, however, that other State Departments and agencies need the services of such clinics, and the conclusion is practically unanimous after conference among the State Departments concerned, that they can effectively co-operate in providing such clinics jointly in various communities throughout the State. These would afford facilities for expert diagnosis, for advice as to treatment, and, in many instances, for treatment itself. Such a system of clinics would coordinate well with the proposed "health centres" which the State Department of Health is to establish throughout the State.

The Plan Outlined.

In an article written for "Health News", the official publication of the State Department of Health, Dr. Walter B. James, former Chairman of the State Commission for Mental Defectives, outlined the proposal for joint clinics as follows:

"The importance of mental health as well as its relation to bodily health is daily becoming more and more widely recognized", he writes.

"There is a universally admitted need throughout the State for an extension of the opportunity for having mental examinations made of persons whose mental soundness is suspected. This need is felt by at least seven important State Agencies—The State Hospital Commission, the State Commission for Mental Defectives, the Department of Health,

the Department of Education, the State Commission of Prisons, the Probation Commission and the State Board of Charities with its numerous affiliated associations.

"In addition to the State Agencies, there are closely affiliated private organizations which also have a very direct interest in the establishment of such clinics, especially the State Charities Aid Association, which has already done a great deal of most valuable clinical work along this line and which has stimulated the establishment of Mental Clinics by the State Hospital Commission.

Thirty Clinics Now Exist.

"The State Hospital Commission already has between twenty and thirty clinics, many of which are doing successful work, but these are not extensively or generally used by the other agencies above mentioned and it seems unlikely that they would be so used unless the remaining State Department could have some part in and some responsibility for them.

"The present plan for State Mental Clinics, therefore, proposes a board of joint control, to consist of one of the leading officers of each of the above mentioned seven agencies. This board has already been formed at a meeting at which all of the organizations were represented. It is proposed that it encourage the creation of clinics throughout the State wherever they may be found to be needed. It is intended that for the most part the clinics shall be maintained by local agencies already existing, such as hospitals, dispensaries, county boards of child welfare and others.

Extend Health Centre Idea.

"Thus it is clear that this plan is merely an extension of the health centre scheme which is being developed by the Department of Health. This Department had already considered having a room for mental hygiene in connection with the various health centres and it is possible indeed, that it may seem wiser to drop the name "mental clinic" in each case to merely call the agency a "health centre" and to gradually develop in each such centre all of the activities that could be made of value to the inhabitants of the district. It is not intended, and this should be clearly understood, to establish departments of medicine, and surgery, or to furnish a substitute for the medical and surgical advice that is already adequately provided throughout the State by practitioners of medicine, but rather to cover ground, which at present is not covered, especially in the abnormalities of the mind.

Would Prevent Duplication.

"Special services will be furnished from the staffs of the State Hospitals for the Insane from the State Commission for Mental Defectives, the Board of Education and the State Board of Charities and its institutions, and the Department of Health. It is believed that in this way a maximum of service to the people of the State can be had at a minimum of cost through the utilization of agencies already existing. It is the intention of the Board of Control to begin with the creation of such clinics in five or six selected towns, where immediate co-operation and interest can be had, and it is hoped and believed that from this beginning a State-wide system can be gradually developed.

"It has been thought best that at the outset the Board of Control of Mental Clinics, or, as it may be called in the future, of "Health Centres", should be informally created and not by act of legislature. Later, it may seem best to make it a matter of legislative enactment.

"The idea of such a clinic is not a new one, as it already exists in an admirable form at Waverley, Massachusetts, where it is conducted by Dr. Fernald, head of the institution for the feebleminded. The present plan proposes to make the invaluable services of such a clinic as Waverley available to as many as possible of the citizens of the State.

"Such a clinic would naturally operate somewhat as follows: There would be a fixed day when patients could be brought for preliminary study, when the various mental tests would be made, the history taken, perhaps a physical examination and when an inquiry into the environment of the patient could be started. On a subsequent date, a few days later, the patient would be again brought to the clinic, when the State Hospital psychiatrist, especially chosen and fitted for such work, and who would be at the head of the mental division of the centre, having all of the above data prepared and recorded, would make a diagnosis, arrive at a conclusion and put the patient upon rational treatment and give the wisest counsel.

Experts' Services Available.

"It is believed that such a system would provide as widely as possible for the citizens of the State the benefits of the best modern knowledge of mental disorders which are not available to-day. The experience of the New American Army in relation to psychiatry and the valuable facts and principles that have been accumulated through the labours of the psychiatric division of the Army, have made it even more evident than it was previously, that great benefits can be made to accrue through the early detection and the skilful management of the mental disorders and abnormalities and maladjustments that are so common throughout the community.

"The plan, as outlined, contemplates co-operation between a number of distinct and independent State mechanisms and the utilization in common of the resources of these for the accomplishment of a common aim. This is a principle which may be somewhat new in Governmental relations, but it has so much to commend it that it seems more than worth while to attempt a successful accomplishment."

S.C.A.A. News, August, 1919.

THE SOCIAL VALUE OF A MAN

OUR pedagogy has hitherto not understood the true standard of human value. The social value of a man is composed of two groups of factors; mental and bodily hereditary dispositions, and faculties acquired by education and instruction. Without sufficient hereditary dispositions, all efforts expended in learning a certain subject will generally fail more or less. Without instruction and without exercise, the best hereditary dispositions will become atrophied, or will give indifferent results. But hereditary dispositions not only influence the different domains of knowledge, as the traditional pedagogues of our public schools seem to admit, they also act on all the domains of human life, especially on the mind. Good dispositions in the domains of will, sentiment, judgment, imagination, perseverence, duty, accuracy, self-control, the faculty of thinking logically and distinguishing the true from the false, the faculty of combining aesthetic thoughts and sensations, all constitute human values which are much superior to the faculty of rapid assimilation or receptivity, and a good memory for words and phrases.

In spite of the great importance of rational pedagogy, we must not forget that it is incapable of replacing selection. It serves for the immediate object, which is to utilize in the best possible way human material as it exists at present; but by itself it cannot in any way improve the quality of the future germ. It can, however, by instructing youth on the social value of selection, prepare it to put the latter in action.

From *The Sexual Question*, by A. Forel.

STATE WILL WORK TO AID ITS WARDS

Ohio to Study Case of each Boy and Girl in Hands of Juvenile Courts.

When the bureau of juvenile research has been established in Ohio, under direction of the State board of administration, the State will have work under way that will be without a counterpart in this country and will compare with the best France and Germany have accomplished after centuries of scientific labour.

The law does not become effective until next July, but members of the Board have completed tentative plans for organization, and will have their machinery ready for operation early.

This bureau becomes, through the provisions of the law, the agency of the State to which will come all juveniles who may fall into the hands of the probate and juvenile courts of the state. While there are some effective and successful juvenile courts operating in Ohio, there are many counties where the work is handled as a part of other courts, ofttimes by men with no training and little sympathy for the work that comes before them.

It has been evident from the inception of the juvenile laws that many cases were handled to the detriment of the child and the state.

Examine Each Case.—Under the new law, when the courts find a juvenile who needs a correcting influence, the youngster will be committed to the care and custody of the board of administration. In that way he goes to the juvenile research bureau.

While the child is detained at that place for observation and for the scientific tests to determine if he is normal or defective, an examiner will visit his home, make careful investigation of the causes that apparently operated to the detriment of the child, and file all information with the bureau. Antecedent conditions and surrounding influences will be made plain.

Then the child will be subjected to the Binet-Simon scientific test to determine if he is normal and, if defective, to fix certainly the degree of defectiveness or retardation in development.

With the record completed there then will be a medical test to determine if there be any defect of his eyes, ears, nose or throat, or other ailment that would operate to the disadvantage of the child. Curable troubles will be treated and then, the survey of the child having been completed, the board will know exactly to what institution he should go for further care.

It is the intention of the board to place normal children in private homes wherever possible. Only delinquents may be so placed. Defectives will remain in the care and custody of the state. By placing in good home environment the child whose ill surroundings have made it a delinquent, and giving it a chance to work its way out and by retaining permanently the possession of the defectives and the defective delinquents, the state ultimately will solve largely the problem of the unfit.

If defectives are taken in youth and placed in a state institution and retained there, ultimately there will be no adult defectives at large and the great problem will have seen solution.

Test Proves Accurate.—The Binet-Simon test for mentality is a scientific examination now so many times proved good that it is accepted.

It is a comparatively recent acquisition in the field of child study but it is known throughout the civilized world. It has been used in the feebleminded hospitals here for several years. Through it the exact mental development of the child may be fixed definitely. The child may be 16 with a mentality of 10. The determination of this fact makes easy and plain the method of handling and the classification.

It has been shown that a large percentage of juvenile delinquents are defective to a degree. The determination of this fact and the degree of defectiveness are requisites for their proper handling by the courts or the state. Since the institution of the Delaware home for girls and the Lancaster home for boys, the law has operated to send all delinquents, defective delinquents and defectives to the same place, to be placed together where the worst phases of the defectives are developed and the best of the delinquents frequently made worse.

By having the research bureau complete its work and make its classification, the board may determine which of the children are mentally sound and merely victims of bad environment. In such case the board members say they will have no trouble in obtaining for that child a proper and comfortable home in a private family.

The state for years has not been able to supply enough boys and girls to people who ask for them and it has an acceptable waiting list of good people all the time. If the child goes to a home it still is in the custody of the state to be returned for any serious infraction of regulations but eligible for permanent liberty if good behaviour is continued.

Children not equipped to put out in the world for any cause will be committed to some state institution, the home at Lancaster, or Delaware, or hospitals maintained by the state. With this betterment of conditions for children committed to the care of the board will come a survey and classification of the inmates of the Delaware and Lancaster homes.

That will be followed by segregation of the classes, and the mixture of the classes as practised now, will not be continued. In that way conditions will not be made worse for the less unfortunate.

The key to the whole movement that contemplates so much of betterment for the unfortunate, is the accurate scientific record that is to be made in each case. With the operation of the bureau for a few years there will accumulate such a mass of scientific data relative to each case and to the various classes that the board then may ask for further improvements in the handling of wards of the state.

Board members often have stated that one unsatisfactory feature of their work was the almost entire lack of public interest. The board hopes to make public developments as the work goes ahead and hopes

to obtain improvement in public interest so other reforms may not be delayed when sought.

Certain definite propositions are accepted as the base for the child improvement work that is being mapped out. One is that there is nothing that can be done for the improvement of a defective delinquent. Society, to protect the unfortunate and itself, must segregate the victim of misfortune and restrain him for the span of his natural life. Every effort and observation made by scientists proves the utter helplessness of the defective delinquent.

Often his existence may be made free from harm and under inspection, even useful in certain occupations, but freedom and the privilege of open communication with the public must be denied. The state will have the duty of making his existence useful and pleasant, and segregation as complete as is humanly possible.

Carried out to its fullest possibility, that would mean the permanent segregation of defectives, a dream long cherished by those who study social problems from the scientific view-point.

The operation of the juvenile research bureau is intended to be far reaching. Its success and results depend largely on the ability and genius of the scientist placed in charge. There are few in the country fitted for the work.

The great expert in that line is Dr. Goddard of Vineland, N.J. To him board members will go later in the year for a consultation. They hope to lay before him their general plans for the work to be started in Ohio and they are hopeful he may be able to recommend some one to be put in charge to organize and operate the bureau.

Once started, it is the belief that the work will be so large that a staff will have to be organized, and from that staff there will be developed material for the use of the state as the work grows. The outlook is that some one from an eastern city, where the work has been put under way, who has had experience will be selected, but no one at the present is in sight.

With this work will come that of handling those adults sent to prison under the indeterminate laws. Their cases will need investigation, for the person of the offender is in the custody of the state until fitness for a relation with society has been surveyed and determined. This puts in the hands of the board the problem of handling the adult delinquent.

By declining to release defectives that come to prison and by refusing freedom to those whose records show they do not appreciate it, the state may take a long trip toward improving society's safety and welfare.

The board is conscious of the magnitude of the task that is before it. The plan has been laid out, the development will be continued and the

operation started on time. It is the belief of the board that public sentiment will favour the plan, once it is understood.

Dr. Shepherd, alienist of the board, is enthusiastic over the work outlined and thinks it one of the most important constructive movements in which the state has engaged. It is a movement for the protection by the state of the unfit and the fullest protection of society from contaminating influences.

He says defectives that come to the board are the end product of bad conditions. These conditions may have existed for generations. In that case the greater the degree of defectiveness found, the human product at the end of that term is so much the worse.

The end product is the millstone that hangs about the necks of tax-payers, costing Ohio millions of dollars each year. If the new way of handling the end product proves more humane, protects the state and society, and relieves the burden of the tax-payers, he thinks it will have shown its worth from every standpoint.

EMPLOYMENT MANAGEMENT COURSE.

The Social Service Department of the University of Toronto announces a Course in Employment Management for September, 1919. For the benefit of our readers, we are printing the following details of the new course:

The course will last from three to four weeks. Instruction will be given daily, one hour being devoted to each of the three main divisions into which the course falls. These are—

1. Personnel Management. Principles and Practice; including methods of securing, selecting, promoting and transferring employees, trade tests and rating scales, job analysis and personnel specifications, organization and work of a personnel office, labour turnover and its reduction, etc.

2. Industrial Psychology. The application to business of modern psychology, ways of learning and of teaching business processes, intelligence tests and their application to industry, influences making for harmony or disharmony, co-operation or antagonism within industry, etc.

3. Economic Principles and Methods involved in 1 and 2. Causes which have brought about the present economic situation, wage determination (various plans), labour problems and proposed solutions, labour organizations, labour laws, etc.

The course will be given both afternoons and evenings if the enrolment is sufficient. Both principles and practice will receive detailed discussion throughout, and opportunity will be provided for the application of the knowledge acquired.

Dr. Harvey Clare, formerly Superintendent of the Toronto Reception Hospital, Assistant Superintendent of the Queen Street Hospital for the

Insane, has been appointed Medical Director of the Ontario Hospitals. The office is a new one and is taken as a forward step in institutional management. Dr. Clare is to have general supervision of the medical work in connection with the Ontario Hospitals and will furnish the Minister with reports of the movement, discharge, transfer, etc., of patients, also reporting on the equipment, accommodation and furnishings of these institutions.

Tenders for the construction of five additional buildings at the new Ontario Military Psychiatric Hospital, south of London, are being called for as a result of a visit made yesterday by Chief Architect Wright of the Department of Public Works, Ottawa. The buildings will cost $150,000. Two will be for recreation purposes, one for an isolation ward, one for tuberculosis patients, and one for the Vocational Re-education Branch.

New Reception Hospital for Toronto.—Preparation of plans and specifications for a new city Reception Hospital have been ordered by the Board of Control, Toronto. What the hospital will cost or where situated is as yet unknown.

W. W. Dunlop, Inspector of Prisons and Asylums, stated that he is recommending that a hospital to accommodate 60 patients be erected with a staff of twenty-five members. The cost is estimated at $1,400 a bed, which would roughly mean a total cost of $84,000. Whether the city will stand the entire cost of the institution is another question.

"According to the statutes," said Inspector Dunlop, "each city of over 100,000 should have a reception hospital built at its own cost, but afterwards maintained by the Province".

This move on the part of the Board of Control to relieve the present situation in regard to the care of mental cases follows immediately on the closing of the Ontario Hospital, Queen Street West, better known as "999 Queen West". For the past two weeks, patients from the Queen Street hospital have been gradually transferred from that institution to the Provincial new hospital at Whitby which has been recently vacated by the military and again taken over by the Ontario Department of Prisons and Asylums. Up to the present there are about 200 patients in Whitby and about 15 every week being transferred from Queen Street. The transportation from the city to Whitby is chiefly carried on by means of automobile, but as the work increases some of the cases will be taken on the train and the work of the automobile continued.

The old building will be vacated as soon as ever the 1,000 patients, now in Queen street, can be transferred to Whitby. This should take probably two or three months.

The closing of Queen Street Hospital sees the passing of another Toronto landmark. The building was erected in 1849, according to the plans used in Bethlehem Asylum, London, England, famously known as "Old Bedlam". The first directors of the institution were Dr. Widmer, Mr. Ewart, J. C. Chewett, Sheriff Jarvis and Dr. King. Patients were first admitted in 1851 and it is estimated that a total number of at least 20,000 cases were handled during its sixty-nine years' service. The first superintendent was Dr. Jos. Workman, appointed in 1853, followed by Dr. Gowan, who was brought out from Edinburgh University in 1875, and remained only a short time. Dr. Daniel Clarke was later appointed in 1876, followed by Dr. C. K. Clark, 1905, who was finally succeeded by the present superintendent in 1911, Dr. J. M. Forester.

The building was purchased six years ago, together with the old Central Prison, by the Grand Trunk Railway, and an estimated value is put at between $400,000 and $500,000. The Provincial authorities still hold lease for its continued occupation.

Inspector Dunlop, in discussing the closing of the Queen Street institution emphasized the neçessity for a local reception hospital, pointing out that at present there is an urgent need for some place to handle acute mental cases in the city. The Whitby Institution is considered by Mr. Dunlop to be one of the finest of its kind in America.

LETTER TO INSPECTORS, PRINCIPALS, AND TEACHERS

Dear Sir or Madam,

Your personal interest in the individual welfare of your pupils, as shown by your letter of enquiry, on the above subject is much appreciated by the Minister of Education. The Minister has directed that a general reply should be prepared for your use in such cases, and I am instructed to ask that you will kindly communicate with me further if there is any point which you wish to discuss more at length. I shall always be glad to hear from you.

A few suggestions may be made by way of guidance and assistance to the teachers of the regular classes who may have one or more very backward children in their classes, and further information may be found in the publications of the Department, such as the Annual Reports on Auxiliary Classes and the Auxiliary Classes Handbook (Educational Pamphlet No. 7), a new edition of which is now being prepared.

Your very backward (mentally-defective?) pupil has the same right to education that your other pupils have. It may be that he can learn with difficulty what the other children learn easily. It may be that he cannot learn some things that the other children can and do learn.

Two points must be borne in mind:

First—That he can learn something, and we must find out what that something is.

Second—That every pupil has a right to his fair share of the teacher's personal attention, interest and skill.

It is not fair to the other pupils to continue to give a disproportionate share to a very backward pupil. If we can, in a short time, advance that pupil so much that he can work with the rest, well and good. If a child, after a fair trial, cannot learn to write, but only makes meaningless marks, do not waste your time "teaching him" writing. Do not try to make a rope of sand. If you have forty pupils, you must not give ten per cent. of your time to one pupil, except, as has already been said, as a temporary measure and for good reasons.

Before following out the subject further, two requests may be made. First—Do please keep a School Diary, or what the Doctor calls a Case Book, or what your grandfather called a Commonplace Book. Take at least one page for each child. Of course, you should keep it under lock and key, but then a teacher needs at least one lock and key. The interest of such a book soon becomes fascinating. To put down a brief estimate of your pupils,—their good points, characters, endowments—the mistakes you make about them and when and how these were corrected—the prejudices you had and who or what gave you these prejudices—the first sign of real intellectual awakening—it is worth while. It is such a help and stimulus to yourself, and frees you from the deadly enemy routine, which has ruined more teachers and pupils than we can count. In teaching a backward pupil such a Case Book is invaluable.

The second request is—Do, please, ask yourself the question: "Why is this pupil backward?" and find the answer. Remember that very few pupils are mentally defective. You are Counsel for the Accused. If you can possibly prove that your pupil is not mentally defective, that is the best day's work you have ever done. It is a crime to whisper that any child is mentally defective who may be only backward. Keep silence. A physician, and an experienced and able one at that, is alone competent to make the diagnosis of mental defect. A community diagnosis is a different thing. Where normal people have had one or two generations to think things over they seldom fail to make a correct diagnosis of mental defect, if it is really present. This has been done for centuries. The Scotch expression, "Wanting a penny in the pound" or the brief verdict, "Not all there", are significant of this. When the second or third generation appears in the school-room from such a family, well-known in all the countryside, the diagnosis is already made. Our duty then is to find out what the powers and capacities of our new pupil are,

and to seek diligently until we find them. But when, in a new class, we find a very backward pupil, or when a new pupil, much over age, is brought to our class, the only question for us is "Why?" What is the cause and meaning of this backwardness?

The cause of backwardness may be physical, mental, moral, social. It may be in the Body, the Mind, the Nature, the Nurture, the Parents, the Home, the School, Society, the State—"For there, too, lurks the enemy". Beware of giving up the quest before you begin. There must be some reason. And if you, with your professional skill and experience, cannot answer "Why?" it is probable that the Doctor can help you, and always the School Nurse is a very great ally.

Do not allow the attitude of the parents to influence you too much. They may say, "Oh, the Doctor cannot do anything". On the contrary, the doctor can nearly always do something, especially the family doctor. Backwardness from bodily causes is very common. Among the commonest of such causes and some remedies are:

Defective sight—Glasses prescribed by an oculist. (Give front seat in class-room).

Defective hearing—Teach lip-reading. (Give front seat in class-room).

Defective breathing—Examination of nose and throat by doctor who will advise remedy.

Defective teeth—Teach how to keep teeth clean. Attention by dentist.

Defective immunity—Strengthen the child's "constitution".

Defective nutrition—Good food, fresh air, exercise, sleep.

These causes are extremely common. Do you realize that you are responsible for finding them out and doing all in your power to get them remedied? Any one of them may cause your pupil to lose his education or his health, or both, or may make him very backward. If there is no School Medical Officer and no School Nurse, and the parents have not found out that there is anything wrong, then you are the child's only hope for proper attention and a fair chance. Put down your observations and your efforts in your School Diary. If your child is pale, listless and easily fatigued, he may be going to bed too late at night, or up too early in the morning, thus losing sleep. Children must have plenty of sleep. They should not be wage-earners, working either before or after school, if it interferes with this. Do you know which of your pupils are wage-earners? Put it in your School Diary and do not forget it.

Look at your children from a new point of view as often as you can. You seldom talk to anyone—pupil, mother, father, brother, sister, nurse, doctor, fellow-teacher—about your pupil, without learning something you did not know before. Have you the confidence of your pupils? They

know a great many things about this backward pupil that you do not know, and if they are sure you will use this information with proper regard for his views and theirs about respecting that confidence, they will tell you some of these things that they know and you do not.

It may not be loss of sleep. Somebody should know about home conditions. Why not you? You are interested, are you not? The clergyman visits the home. The doctor visits the home. You belong to as important a profession as either. If you cannot visit all the homes, visit the homes where your backward pupils live, but do not sound a trumpet before you to tell why. Ontario is rich enough, and will soon be wise enough, to see that—if getting up at 5.00 a.m. to deliver papers, or sitting up till 11.00 p.m. to deliver groceries, or not having enough to eat, or smoking in boyhood, or living in a one-roomed house (some children do), is spoiling her future citizens—she should change all that and she will. The teacher has a strategic position as a "social worker", and should direct and co-operate in social work.

It may be some disease. You think the pupil is inattentive and lazy. Perhaps you do not know all the facts. There is such a thing as laziness. But it has happened before now that a child who seemed lazy was really sick. There is no use denying it. The doctor has a stethoscope to examine the heart and knows a leaky valve when he hears it. The doctor knows the signs of tuberculosis and rheumatism and many another enemy of childhood, whose invasion is so insidious that those who see the child every day fail to realize that anything is wrong.

Or the problem may be a very simple one. Mary is away now with the whooping-cough and you think you remember she was absent last spring, and look up her page in your School Diary—yes, she was away five weeks with measles, and when she came into your class in January she had been away for a couple of months with scarlet fever, so your diary says. Is it any wonder that Mary is backward? Here is one of the pupils who deserves "intensive cultivation" in the school-room, if she is strong enough; or, perhaps, special consideration, shorter hours and more sunlight, better food, with an occasional special lesson.

The real reason of the child's backwardness may be very obscure. There is such a thing as school incompatibility. It may be some old, unhappy, far-off feud with some teacher you never saw, but you are the innocent victim of the child's outraged sense of justice—until he finds that you are not unjust. Have patience. It may be that that family have moved seven times in the seven years of the child's school life, and he has given up the struggle to adjust himself to seven different schools and seven different school populations with varied methods of school governments. Teachers are hard for a child to understand anyway, but who could understand and adjust himself to so many teachers in one

short school lifetime? So the pupil's mental action does not flourish any more than a plant would flourish if it were as frequently uprooted. Try special attention, personal interest and "intensive cultivation" before the family flit again. If you are really interested in the child, he can hardly help being interested in himself and in his work. It may be only "cranking" that he needs—"three extra notches of gasoline", as it were. Try him "on the battery". It is not every child who has a "self-starter". Before you know it, you are fond of the child, then you will get on, and so will he.

This brings us in sight of the psychology of childhood. This new and fascinating subject is only beginning to be guessed at. The mind of a child is sometimes engaged in a life and death struggle with some complete misapprehension which terrorizes him. He has "got in wrong" and he cannot recover himself. His initiative has been blighted by sarcasm or by the slings and arrows of outrageous fortune; it is cut down and withered. He is not going to attempt anything. He fears his fate too much. He does not know how much you can do for him, so he wraps his talent in a napkin and buries it in the earth, and that was a pity, for he had only one talent. So he gets more and more behind. From him that hath not shall be taken away even that which he hath. Again, you are his only chance. Do you know anything about this boy at all? No. Well then, somebody does, and unless you intend to let him go under and drown, you must find out from some one else what life-line he can cling to. Is he fond of pets? Make a survey of his possibilities and do, for God's sake, give him a chance.

Sometimes the home conditions are very bad. It is hard for the school to do much for the product of a bad home. So there is a law on the Statute Books of Ontario, a law which has often helped both the child and the school, providing for proper care for neglected children. You might need to invoke the law.

Some children are quite slow of comprehension and dull of mind. That is not their fault. They usually come by it honestly. They are apt to be rather backward, but we should not set too high a school standard for them. In character-training, they are often at the head of the class, and who would hesitate between achievement in character and achievement in academic subjects? History, literature, composition and "citizenship" often show their solid worth and real thoughtfulness. Give them a helping hand with other subjects and don't keep them too long at things they can do without.

So much for the backward child—the greatest unrealized asset of the nation. The Victory Bond Committees mined a great deal of gold in Canada. It was valuable, but its value is as nothing in comparison with the riches hidden away and lost in wasted lives—citizens who from

childhood to old age are simply "duds" because no one ever sets free their powers. The great War showed us the amazing riches of heroism, resourcefulness, power, initiative, perseverance, unselfishness—in one word, character—in the poorest of us. The Great Peace will show us how to set about realizing these in establishing a new world where Education shall not be a name and Democracy a delusion.

"In re-construction, education is the only thing that really matters."

Teacher—Save that Backward Child.

But in some cases the child is not backward. He is mentally defective. That is, the cause of his backwardness is irremovable. Of course he may have some of the removable defects too, which we must remove if possible. (See above). The teacher is not responsible for this mental defect, nor for diagnosing it, nor for its consequences. Neither Socrates nor Arnold of Rugby could educate the mind of a child who has little or no mind to educate. Do not try to teach the child what he cannot learn. Teach him what he can learn. What the teacher has to do is to develop the powers of the child. We must first find out what these powers are.

Nature has put the defective child in a class by himself, and we should follow her example. But where there is no class for the defective child by himself or with other defective children, should he be excluded from the regular class? Not unless his presence there seriously interferes with the progress of the class and the work of the teacher. The rights of the majority and the normal child must not be interfered with. It is usually a mistake to attempt to keep a child in school whose mental age is below the legal (permissive) school age, or one whose chronological age is so far in advance of the average age of the class as to render his presence undesirable. It is not uncommon to find in the Primary or First-Book Class a defective child of eleven or twelve years. This is not suitable.

Of course, in any case, the Principal, the parents, the family physician, and if possible, the School Doctor and School Nurse should be consulted privately by the teacher, and every respect and consideration should be shown both to the child and the parents. Any action of the school authorities, such as requesting that the child should not come to school, should usually be fortified by a medical opinion.

Where the defect, however, is not so pronounced, an effort should certainly be made by the school authorities to give the child some education. It is often well to give him a seat in a part of the room by himself and to give him at the same time the privilege of doing some simple duty, usually entrusted to one of the best pupils. If his desk and seat can be in some way favourably placed or distinguished or specially equipped, it will help to make his school life happier and more successful.

But do not shut your eyes. Teachers often "get used to" a child's defects and forget them. Remember the age of the child in any estimate you make of his powers. Show the child great kindness and respect and see that your pupils do the same. It is "part of your job" to carry him along. Make the pupils feel that it is "part of their job" too.

Always—Always—Always—encourage the mentally defective. Never—Never—Never—under any circumstances say or do anything to discourage them. They have not the normal power of self-dependence and self-encouragement. Let them have some special possessions, and teach them to take care of these. Such lessons will be of real value.

It will repay you richly to teach your pupil good personal habits and hygiene. Everything we can teach him which enables him to keep himself and his clothes clean and neat is of great advantage. Be prepared to spend much time and attention on this.

Analyze the simplest thing you teach him into tiny steps—so small that the ordinary pupil would take half-a-dozen such steps in one mental movement. Realize that one such tiny step is a great achievement for the mental defective, and then drill and drill and change and repeat until this step becomes automatic. Aim at industrial training and industrial habits. But we must always be clear that our pupils can really profit by what we teach.

Mental defectives are much more easily "bored" than the normal children. Mental effort fatigues them quickly. A big boy of seventeen years chronological age and mental age seven years may be more fatigued by five minutes' book learning than by five hours' hard work. Give them very short lessons.

Mental defectives differ among themselves as much as normal people do. They all have their good points. There are a great many different types, such as the "Smiler", almost unteachable; the voluble and loquacious—often so glib as to deceive even a magistrate; the restless type—never still; the silent type, who scarcely ever speaks; and the good, kind, decent ones, who are a comfort.

Mental defectives are very different at different times. They have good and bad days. They frequently have a "twenty-four hours memory". The tablets of memory on which you think you have written some lesson to-day may be found quite blank to-morrow. If that happens constantly, do not waste your time. You will never get any result but wasting your time and the ratepayers' money.

Keep these children busy to the limit of their capacity, but do not fatigue them. They are often good handworkers, and they can be educated through the hand better than through the head. They are often clever mechanically.

Respect and develop their powers of affection, but do not let them grow sentimental. Never teach them anything they will not use in after life. Develop anything that will help in the slightest degree to make them useful in the home, in the community, or as wage-earners, however humble the work.

Never lose sight of any chance of vocational training of any kind. Of course, it is usually of a very simple and humble kind.

Try to get the training started at as early an age as possible. Has your pupil any younger brothers or sisters? Are they defective? Can they be given some training? The hopeful years are from three to thirteen. After that the progress is not so good. But all mentally defective children who come to school have some intelligence, and can learn something at school. It is probable that a special time-table ought to be made for your mentally defective child, but this will take time to develop. Perhaps we place too much emphasis on writing and reading. What use is writing going to be to your feeble-minded pupil? What will he do with it? It is likely that you will be able to teach him to write his name. That will be useful to him. Anyone who has taught a feeble-minded child the alphabet by means of giving him letters three or four inches high, cut out of wood, to handle and play with, will remember what a help these letters were. The phonic method is not always the best to use for such children. And do not try to give him all the lessons yourself. Your other pupils will often succeed in teaching him things that you cannot teach him. If there is a sign "For Sale" on a house near by, borrow it and use it to teach your boy these words. That lesson will lead to several others, and gradually the child may learn to read well enough to help himself and interest himself.

Of course the higher grade mental defectives or "morons", as they are called, or border-line cases, can learn to write or read easily. Readers of Dickens will remember Mr. Toots and his prowess as a letter writer. Mr. Toots got on quite well in Dr. Blimber's Academy. So will the Mr. Toots in your class—in a way. Writing from a copy—large round hand—is a favourite employment with many feebleminded children. It does them no harm when they can do it fairly easily. They learn neatness and some control of hand and fingers. But in teaching reading and writing, do not use superhuman efforts to teach the child. It is sometimes agony to him and always exhausting to you, and no good comes out of it. Teach him what he can learn.

We may almost say, as a rule, that a child who is fairly good in arithmetic is not mentally defective. Arithmetic is the greatest school difficulty that a feebleminded child has to meet. Do not drill him for ever on tables. He may learn them by dint of repetition, but often he cannot use them and will, therefore, forget them. Long division is

usually the upper limit of a feebleminded child's arithmetic. But concrete work he can often do. Let him weigh, measure, number, to his heart's content, and procure or make simple apparatus for his own use. Think of simple industrial work for him. Drawing is a fine subject for children who can manage paper and crayon or slate and pencil. Give them pieces of cheap paper or wrapping paper. Let them cut out pictures and advertisements and use them. Many mentally defective children have good powers of imitation.

Music is an exceedingly important subject for mentally defective children. For some reason, which we can only guess at, they nearly all have some idea of music and most of them are very fond of it. To learn to play on some instrument is a great thing for such a child and lessons of this kind are very helpful.

Simple physical training as to step, gait, posture, reflex action, response to command, is important. Give the child every possible opportunity for this. Here again, as in nearly all other subjects, a senior pupil can give excellent lessons, with some supervision. Every effort should be made to help mentally defective pupils to join simple games. They may not play like the rest nor with children of their own size and age, but they can learn to play.

Occupational training, pasting, matching pictures, using a board with holes, in which pegs or other things can be fitted, sorting different things, stringing beads, arranging colours, following an outline with tracing paper, simple weaving, sewing, knitting, colouring and all forms of work with paper, may be utilized in teaching children. But do not allow them to keep the supplies. Keep the supplies for them in a special cupboard, and, if convenient, provide lessons for a month or more, or for a whole school term, with little or no repetition. This can be managed easily by using in the different seasons of the year the material that nature supplies, or using materials that the industries of the neighbourhood render available for using waste products. Sewing on cards, working in wood sometimes, string work, making mats and simple baskets, and, if the pupil progresses so far, manual work and weaving may be gradually introduced. With girls, domestic and home training is of the greatest value, and, indeed, it is very important to co-operate with the occupations of the parents and the work carried on in the home in every possible way.

There are three books which may be mentioned as of special value to teachers of very backward children, or children who appear to be mentally defective. These books are "The Boston Way", by the Special Class Teachers of Boston, published by the Rumford Press, Concord, N.H., and "An Introduction to Special School Work", by Marion F. Bridie, L.L.A., published by Edward Arnold, London, England, and "Simple

Beginnings in the Training of Mentally Defective Children", by Margaret MacDowall, published by the Local Government Press Co. (R. T. Leach), London, England.

I have the honour to be, Sir or Madam,

Your obedient servant,

HELEN MACMURCHY,
Inspector of Auxiliary Classes.

Parliament Buildings, Toronto.
March 19th, 1919.

WORK WITH THE FEEBLE-MINDED AT HALIFAX

Twenty years ago the Local Council of Women of Halifax made a study of the question of mental deficiency, and in 1906 approached the Provincial Government to present facts showing the number of feeble-minded in the Province, and histories of specific cases. No Governmental action followed, however, because it was argued that the expense involved in dealing with the situation was prohibitive.

Some time later the Local Council were instrumental in forming the Nova Scotia League for the Care of the Feeble-Minded, with Sir Frederick Fraser as its President, and fifty branch leagues were organized throughout the Province. Several meetings of the Association were held, but the Provincial Government was not again approached on the subject.

Following the Halifax disaster, the I.O.D.E. of Canada sent a large donation to be used for children who had suffered in the explosion. Since the majority of these children were already being cared for in hospitals and institutions, a request was made by the I.O.D.E. of Halifax that the fund might be used for feeble-minded children injured in the disaster—children for whom no special provision existed. This suggestion met with approval, and a Home for the Feeble-Minded was started in a little cottage on the grounds of the Protestant Industrial School, under the supervision of Dr. Eliza Brison, an assistant, and a matron. At present there are 10 small girls in residence.

Dr. Brison has been appointed convener of the Committee for the Care of the Feeble-Minded, and it is the hope of the Local Council of Women that the fifty branch leagues which were never called into action may be revived, and a campaign of publicity undertaken in the Province.

The Board of Education has demonstrated interest in this problem. Five teachers specially trained in Harvard, Waverley, and Vineland have charge of two auxiliary classes. A third will be opened in September. It is recognized that there is urgent need for supervision and further instruction for children who graduate from these classes, although nothing has been accomplished along this line to date.

Largely through Dr. Hattie's efforts there is a prospect of the establishment of a clinic for the feeble-minded in connection with the Halifax Dispensary, and it is hoped that the Medical School of Dalhousie University will support this project.

TO PROMOTE OCCUPATIONAL THERAPY

A National Association for the Promotion of Occupational Therapy has been organized in the United States indicating that the movement has grown to proportions which need the stimulus of national contact. The association has agreed upon a platform of principles which express the object and purposes of occupational therapy and the results expected to be produced through its development as follows:

(1) Occupational Therapy is a method of treating the sick or injured by means of instruction and employment in productive occupation.

(2) The objects sought are to rouse interest, courage and confidence: to exercise mind and body in healthy activity: to overcome functional disability: and to re-establish capacity for industrial and social usefulness.

(3) In applying Occupational Therapy, system and precision are as important as in other forms of treatment.

(4) The treatment should be administered under constant medical advice and supervision, and correlated with the other treatment of the patient.

(5) The treatment should, in each case, be specifically directed to the individual needs.

(6) Though some patients do best alone, employment in groups is usually advisable because it provides exercise in social adaptation and the stimulating influence of example and comment.

(7) The occupation selected should be within the range of the patient's estimated interests and capability.

(8) As the patient's strength and capability increase, the type and extent of occupation should be regulated and graded accordingly.

(9) The only reliable measure of the value of the treatment is the effect on the patient.

(10) Inferior workmanship, or employment in an occupation which would be trivial for the healthy, may be attended with the greatest benefit to the sick or injured. Standards worthy of entirely normal persons must be maintained for proper mental stimulation.

(11) The production of a well-made, useful and attractive article, or the accomplishment of a useful talk, requires healthy exercise of mind and body, gives the greatest satisfaction, and thus produces the most beneficial effects.

(12) Novelty, variety, individuality, and utility of the products enhance the value of an occupation as a treatment measure.

(13) Quality, quantity, and salability of the products may prove beneficial by satisfying and stimulating the patient but should never be permitted to obscure the main purpose.

(14) Good craftsmanship, and ability to instruct are essential qualifications in the occupational therapist; understanding, sincere interest in the patient, and an optimistic, cheerful outlook and manner are equally essential.

(15) Patients under treatment by means of occupational therapy should also engage in recreational or play activities. It is advisable that gymnastics and calisthenics, which may be given for habit training, should be regarded as work. Social dancing and all recreational and play activities should be under the definite head of recreations.

FOR BETTER COMMITMENT LAWS.

The National Committee for Mental Hygiene appointed in December a Committee on Legislation, consisting of Doctor George M. Kline, Chairman of the Massachusetts Commission of Mental Diseases, Chairman, Doctor Charles W. Pilgrim of the New York State Hospital Commission; Doctor Owen Copp, Superintendent of the Pennsylvania Hospital; Doctor Frank P. Norbury of the Illinois Public Welfare Commission; and Major Frankwood E. Williams of the Surgeon General's Office, Washington. The object of the committee is to study the commitment laws of all the states and to suggest some standard forms for the observation, emergency commitment, temporary care and voluntary commitment of persons needing care and treatment because of mental disorder.

It has long been recognized that the commitment laws of many of the states are the expression of a misconception of the nature of mental disease. The individual suffering from mental disease is frequently treated like the lowest form of culprit. Under the guise of protecting his personal liberty, he is thrown into jails and lock-ups, and subjected to the humiliation of crowded court rooms. Happily, public sentiment on these methods is changing rapidly and commitment laws which will safeguard personal liberty and private property and at the same time insure the afflicted one adequate and scientific care and treatment are now demanded, especially in the more progressive states.

The Committee on Legislation has submitted the following suggestions to the state authorities:

Observation and Care.

If a person is found by two physicians qualified as examiners in insanity to be in such mental condition that his commitment to an

institution for the insane is necessary for his proper care or observation, he may be committed by any judge or any other officer authorized to commit insane persons to any state, private or incorporated institution for the insane under such limitations as the judge may direct, pending the determination of his insanity.

Emergency Commitment.

The superintendent or physician in charge of any institution public, private or incorporated, to which an insane person may be committed, may, without an order of a judge (or insert any other committing magistrate), receive into his custody and detain in such institution for not more than ten days, any person whose case is certified to be one of violent and dangerous insanity or of other emergency by two physicians, duly qualified as examiners in insanity, by a certificate conforming in all respects to the provision of law required in a medical certificate of insanity, and said certificate may, if the commitment of such person as insane shall be duly completed, be used as the certificate of insanity required by law. The officers required by the laws of commitment of the insane, or any member of the state or district police shall, upon the request of the applicant or of one of the said physicians, cause the delivery of such alleged insane person to such superintendent or physician. The person applying for such admission shall within ten days cause the alleged insane person to be duly committed as insane or removed from the institution, and, failing thereof, be liable to the institution for the expense incurred and to a penalty of fifty dollars which may be recovered by the institution by an action of contract.

Temporary Care.

The superintendent or physician in charge of any institution public, private or incorporated, to which an insane person may be legally committed, may when requested by a physician, by a member of a Board of Health or by a health officer, by an authorized agent of the State Board of Insanity, by a police officer of a city of town, by a member of the state or district police, receive and care for as a patient in such institution for a period not exceeding ten days (or fifteen days), any person who needs care and treatment because of his mental condition.

Such request for admission of a patient shall be in writing and filed at the institution at the time of the reception of the patient, or within twenty-four hours thereafter, together with a statement in a form prescribed or approved by the State Board of Insanity (or insert the proper title of the state supervising board) together with a statement giving such information as said board may deem appropriate.

Such patient who is deemed by the superintendent or physicians not suitable for such care shall, upon the request of the superintendent or

physician, be removed forthwith from the institution by the person requesting his reception and, if he is not so removed, such person shall be liable for all reasonable expenses incurred under the provisions of this act on account of the patient, which may be recovered by the institution in an action of contract.

Said superintendent or physician shall cause every patient to be duly committed according to law, provided he shall not sign a request to remain as a voluntary patient, or to be removed therefrom before the expiration of said period of ten days.

All reasonable expense incurred for the examination of the patient, for his transportation to the institution and for his support therein, shall be allowed, certified and paid according to the laws providing for similar expenses in the commitment and support of the insane.

Voluntary Commitment.

The superintendent or physician in charge of any institution public, private or incorporated to which an insane person may be committed, may receive and detain therein as a boarder and patient any person who is desirous of submitting himself to treatment, and who makes written application therefor, and whose mental condition in the opinion of the superintendent or physician in charge is such as to render him competent to make the application. Such superintendent or physician shall give immediate notice of the reception of such voluntary patient to the State Board of Insanity (or insert the proper title of the state supervising board).

Such patient shall not be detained for more than ten days after having given notice in writing of his intention or desire to leave the institution.

The charges for support of such voluntary patient shall be governed by the laws or rules applicable to the support of an insane person in such institution.

Community Service.

Section 1. Every state institution, to which an insane, feeble-minded, or epileptic person may be committed, shall appoint a physician experienced in the care of such persons, also the necessary assistants to such physician, and shall organize and administer under his direction to a department for community service in the district served by the institution. The duties of said department shall be:

First—The supervision and assistance of patients who have left the institution with a view to their safe care at home, suitable employment and self-support under good working and living conditions, and prevention of their relapse and return to public dependency.

Second—Provision for informing and advising any indigent person, his relatives or friends and the representatives of any charitable agency, as to the mental condition of any indigent person, as to the prevention and treatment of such condition, as to the available institutions or other means of caring for the person so afflicted, and as to any other matter relating to the welfare of such person.

Third—Whenever it is deemed advisable the superintendent of the institution may co-operate with other state departments such as Health, Education, Charities, Penal, Probation, etc., to examine upon request and recommend suitable treatment and supervision for

A. Persons thought to be afflicted with mental or nervous disorder.

B. School children who are nervous, phychopathic, retarded, defective or incorrigible.

C. Children referred to the Department of Juvenile Courts.

Fourth—The acquisition and dissemination of knowledge of mental disease, feeblemindedness, epilepsy and allied conditions, with a view to promoting a better understanding and the most enlightened public sentiment and policy in such matters. In this work the department may co-operate with local authorities, schools and social agencies.

Section 2. The necessary expenses of said department shall be paid from a special appropriation for this purpose not exceeding dollars, subject to the approval of the supervising state board or boards

Conveying Patients to the Hospital.

The judge or magistrate of the court may appoint a proper person to convey the patient to the hospital. If a woman is committed to an institution under the supervision of the state board or commission, the committing judge or magistrate must, unless she is accompanied by her father, husband, brother or son, designate a woman of reputable character and mature age to accompany her thereto.

Parole and Discharge of Patients.

The superintendent of a state hospital may grant a parole to a patient under regulations prescribed by the state board of commission, for a period not exceeding one year, and may receive said patient again when returned by the proper authorities, relatives or friends, or upon personal application of the patient within this period without a new commitment.

THE ONE SUPREME TASK.

Democracy, . . . enters but slowly into the current of human attitudes and habits of thought. Nevertheless in some fashion, however halting and obscure, it has ever been at work. For is not the very essence of civilization itself the attempt of man to modify his world, to construct

something more congenial to his interests, real or fictitious, out of raw material which nature offers him? Invention is the gist of civilization. Each successive step in the long history has resulted from man's making over something, transforming that which he but finds, into a form in which it does not exist by nature, but only by art or artifice. Every step then is marked by the introduction of something new, which is the outcome of the transforming agency of human activity, and which would never have come into being if man had been content to accept and possess that which he merely finds. Consider briefly the two regions which exhibit such reconstructive activity, the physical things in outer nature, and the elements, instinctive and what not, which man finds in human nature. The making of fire, of the bow and arrow, of pottery, the taming of animals, the smelting of iron—these are the epoch-making inventions which raise man through the successive steps of savagery and barbarism. Each is the discovery of a new art. But the discovery of a new art is no mere appropriation or holding fast to some bit of nature; it is reconstruction of that which nature offers. And in one momentous invention or art, namely that of speech, and still more, in the use of graphic signs, it is the construction and the creation of something which nature of itself does not contain. That is, systems of ideas, embodied in language, make possible by speech and made permanent by writing, depend in some sense upon human activity. Instinctive sounds and meaningless marks are woven together, with the result that something new emerges. Significant ideas and a permanent language are the outcome of working raw material—sounds and marks—into a "finished product". And this process spells activity. It has become an all but universal habit of thought among us to define the progress of civilization in terms of technology and in the increase of man's control over nature. These successive steps by which early man invented something, made over some bit of nature's storehouse of raw material, are no doubt utterly sporadic, accidental, unconscious, compared with the persistent and deliberate adoption of the inventor's mental attitude in modern culture. We expect to make over and to control our world. "The key to modernity is control", says Shotwell. The democratic impulse to self-government, the view of the world as plastic and in flux, waiting to be made over into something which we desire, this attitude is all but lacking in primitive life, in the ancient world, in all cultures permeated by religion. There were practically no inventions in the ancient world; one wonders that an art so simple and elementary in principle as that of printing should not have been discovered by the Greeks. Apart from the absence of any necessity for the widespread diffusion of ideas, the reason lies in the fact that the Greeks did not look upon the objects in their world as raw material for human constructive

and transforming activity. Their world was one to appropriate and to possess.

If civilization does however depend upon the inventive and transforming agency of men in respect to physical objects, it depends fully as much upon doing something with, reconstructing and transforming that which man finds within himself. This reconstruction of human nature is of greater significance than is the reconstruction of outer nature. Every law, every social institution, every form of government, every practical idea or ideal, is something made by man, introduced into the world of human instincts and passions and motives, and doing something to these elemental forces, which, left to themselves, they would not achieve. Something happens to human nature in the course of civilization just as something happens to trees and animals, grains and metals. We have hardly become habituated fully to the belief in our own power here; we still think and act as if, however we may succeed in making over physical nature, human nature is something which must be taken as we find it, and left with us as a static possession. These actual transformations and inventions in the arts of social life, the reconstruction and novelties in human nature, have been even more sporadic, more the result of blind necessity and of fortune, than those inventions which put us in partial control over the energies of nature. The democratic attitude and faith have been more slowly maturing here than there. There has not been as much in our prevailing philosophy and habits of thought to justify the hope of controlling and actively making over human motives and social structures, as there has been in the region of technology, machine industry, and physical processes. Yet it is inconceivable that the democratic attitude of activity and control should stop short of the world of human nature. It is precisely in this human region that men are sensible, as never before, of the imperious need for some conscious guidance and intelligent reconstruction, if any such thing be at all possible. The belief that it is within the bounds of possibility, and that it is the one supreme task to which enlightened men in all civilized communities should now devote every energy—this belief and the longing which it expresses, will without any doubt be one spiritual deposit left behind by the war. More than ever before shall we need a philosophy which shall envisage this hope and this attitude, interpret it, and relate it to some total view of man's vocation and his enterprise.—GEORGE PLIMPTON ADAMS: *Idealism and the Modern Age.*

MANUAL OF MENTAL EXAMINATION OF ALIENS

Editorial, U.S. Public Health Reports.

Those concerned with the problems presented by mental disease, and that should include health officers throughout the United States, will

be interested in learning how the Public Health Service guards against the immigration of aliens suffering from mental disease or mental defect. The method of examination and the various procedures by which this undesirable class of prospective immigrants is excluded are well described in a "Manual of the Mental Examination of Aliens", prepared under the direction of the Surgeon General and just published by the Public Health Service. Health officers will do well to ponder the following paragraph taken from this manual, summarizing as it does the chief reasons for regarding mental hygiene as an important public health activity:

"Of all the serious problems in the field of public health activity, that of mental examination of arriving aliens is one of the most important, and the detection of the insane and the mentally defective among arriving aliens and the prevention of their entry has a value that, from the standpoint of national welfare, can hardly be overestimated. Physical disability may give rise to dependency, but with the death of the individual the nation is relieved of the burden. In the case of the insane or mentally defective there is imposed a burden which tends to perpetuate itself. Each mental defective may become the progenitor of a line of paupers, vagrants, criminals or insane persons which will terminate only with the extinction of the race. Were the expense to be purely financial it would be deplorable enough, but to the cost in dollars and cents must be added the ever-present moral degeneracy and its pernicious influence upon society."

The manual contains 112 pages and gives practical instruction to guide inexperienced medical officers in the application of their knowledge of mental disease and defects. Copies may be obtained by writing to the Surgeon General, United States Public Health Service, Washington, D.C.

MASSACHUSETTS PSYCHIATRIC INSTITUTE

The research laboratories heretofore established and now maintained by the Psychopathic Department of the Boston State Hospital, by the Massachusetts Commission on Mental Diseases, are hereby continued and shall hereafter be known as the Massachusetts State Psychiatric Institute. Such Institute shall be under the general supervision and control of the Massachusetts Commission on Mental Diseases, and shall be maintained by the Commission from appropriations obtained for the purpose.

The object of the Institute shall be:

1. To make psychiatric and pathological researches and investigations.

2. To give instruction in psychiatry, neurology, pathology, psychology, and social service, with special reference to instruction in the nature, causes, treatment and results of mental diseases and defects.

3. To promote the advancement of mental hygiene.

4. To encourage scientific work in the institutions.

5. To co-ordinate publications of a scientific nature.

6. To carry on the routine and special duties of the pathological service of the Commission.

7. To supervise and correlate the clinical and laboratory work of the institutions under the Commission.

For the purpose of clinical studies, scientific research and instruction, the clinical facilities of the institutions under the Massachusetts Commission on Mental Diseases, including the Psychopathic Department of the Boston State Hospital, shall be placed at the disposal of the Institute.

The Director of such Institute shall be a psychiatrist to the Massachusetts Commission on Mental Diseases. He shall be appointed, together with such other officers and employees as may be deemed necessary, and their compensation shall be fixed by the commission. The director shall perform, under the direction of the Commission, such duties relating to psychiatric and pathological research, and the instruction of medical staffs of the institutions under the Commission, and such other duties as may be required by the Commission. He shall have the supervision and control of such Institute and of the physicians and other employees therein, subject to the general direction, supervision and control of the Commission. The institutions under the Commission shall co-operate with the Institute in such manner as the Commission may, from time to time, direct. Such officers and employees as the Commission may determine shall, if required by the Commission, reside at the Psychopathic Department of the Boston State Hospital or such other institution as may be determined, and shall be furnished maintenance in whole or part.

Mental Hygiene, July 1919.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK

The National Conference of Social work held its forty-sixth annual meeting at Atlantic City, June 1-8. The programme was one of unusual interest. The Conference is composed of ten divisions under the following captions: (1) Children, (2) Delinquents and Correction, (3) Health, (4) Public Agencies and Public Institutions, (5) The Family, (6) Industrial and Economic Problems, (7) The Local Community, (8) Mental

Hygiene, (9) Organization of Social Forces, (10) The Uniting of Native and Foreign Born in America.

The general theme of the Mental Hygiene Division was "Social Problems as the Reaction of Individual Mental Types to Environment". The general session was devoted to the topic, "Difficulties of Adaptation as Revealed in Military Life", the speakers being Col. Thomas W. Salmon, formerly Senior Consultant in Neuropsychiatry, American Expeditionary Forces, and Lieut.-Col. Frankwood E. Williams, Chairman of the Division.

The programme of the various section meetings of the Division on Mental Hygiene follows:

1. Methods and Results of Recent Investigations of Mental Defect. Methods of Creating Public Interest in the Problem of the Feebleminded, Thomas H. Haines, M.D., Mississippi Mental Hygiene Commission, Jackson.

Recent Advancement in Tennessee in the Care of the Insane and Feebleminded, C. C. Menzler, Executive Secretary, Department of State Charities, Nashville.

Mental Hygiene Surveys in Canada, C. M. Hincks, M.D., Secretary and Associate Medical Director, The Canadian National Committee for Mental Hygiene, Toronto.

2. Psychiatric Social Work.

Place and Scope in Mental Hygiene, Miss Margherita Ryther, Chief of Social Service, Protestant Episcopal Hospital, Philadelphia.

The Individual versus the Family as the Unit of Interest in Social Work, E. E. Southard, M.D., Director, Psychopathic Hospital, Boston.

The Psychiatric Thread Running through all Social Case-Work, Mary C. Jarrett, Chief of Social Service, Psychopathic Hospital, Boston.

3. Training of the Psychiatric Social Worker.

Qualifications of the Psychiatric Social Worker, Jessie Taft, Ph.D., Director, Department of Child Study, Seybert Institution, Philadelphia.

The Special Preparation of the Psychiatric Social Worker, Bernard Glueck, M.D., Mental Hygiene Department, New York School of Social Work.

The Training School of Psychiatric Social Work at Smith College, Edith R. Spaulding, M.D., formerly Director, Psychopathic Laboratory, Women's Reformatory, Bedford Hills, New York.

4. Education and Mental Hygiene.

William H. Burnham, Ph.D., Professor of Pedagogy, Clark University, Worcester, Massachusetts.

C. Macfie Campbell, M.D., Professor of Psychiatry, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore.

William A. White, M.D., Superintendent, St. Elizabeths Hospital Washington, D.C.

5. State Care of Mental Diseases and Social Work.

Function of the Social Worker in Relation to a State Programme, George M. Kline, M.D., Director, Massachusetts Commission on Mental Diseases, Boston.

Function of the Social Worker in Reference to the State Hospital Physician, H. Douglas Singer, M.D., Alienist, Department of Public Welfare of Illinois, and Professor of Psychiatry, University of Illinois.

Function of the Social Worker in Relation to the Community, Miss V. M. MacDonald, Organizer of Social Work, The National Committee for Mental Hygiene, New York.

6. Disciplinary Problems.

Methods of State Procedure, V. V. Anderson, M.D., Psychiatrist in Charge of Special Work in Mental Deficiency, The National Committee for Mental Hygiene.

Methods of Procedure in the Army, Herman M. Adler, M.D., Criminologist, Department of Public Welfare, State of Illinois.

Methods of Procedure in the Navy, Lieutenant-Commander A. L. Jacoby, United States Naval Prison, Portsmouth, New Hampshire.

In addition to the above meetings, a joint session with the Family Division was held on the topic, Some Scientific Bases for Social Case-Work, and a session on the Causes of Delinquency, with the Division on Delinquents and Corrections.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR THE STUDY OF EPILEPSY.

The eighteenth annual meeting of the National Association for the Study of Epilepsy was held at the Craig Colony for Epileptics, Sonyea, New York, June 6th and 7th. This Association was organized in 1901, for the purpose of promoting the pathologic, therapeutic, social and medico-legal study of the epilepsies. In 1912, the Association became affiliated with the International Liga Contra l'Epilepsie, which is the world association for the study of epilepsies.

The meeting in 1918 was not held because of the war, and re-organization and resumption of activities were effected at the 1919 meeting. The programme set forth scientific medical, social, and institutional aspects. Clinics and demonstrations of *regime* were conducted by members of the medical staff of the Colony. Plans for a union of investigators in allied and neutral countries with those of America were discussed.

Members of the medical profession and laymen who are students of the various aspects of the epilepsies are eligible to membership.

AMERICAN MEDICO-PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION

The seventy-fifth annual meeting of the American Medico-Psychological Association was held in Philadelphia, June 18-20.

One session was devoted to administration and state problems, with the following speakers: George M. Kline, M.D., Director, Massachusetts Commission on Mental Diseases, Boston; H. Douglas Singer, M.D., State Alienist, Department of Public Welfare, Illinois; Burdette G. Lewis, Commissioner of Charities of New Jersey; Owen Copp, M.D., Superintendent, Pennsylvania Hospital, Department for Mental and Nervous Diseases, Pennsylvania; James V. May, M.D., Superintendent, Boston State Hospital, Boston.

Another session included military papers by Dr. Thomas W. Salmon, Dr. Frankwood E. Williams, Dr. L. Vernon Briggs, Dr. Sanger Brown; 2nd, Dr. Edward A. Strecker, Dr. John H. W. Rhein, Dr. D. A. Thom, Dr. George E. McPherson and Dr. Tom A. Williams.

The session entitled "Reconstruction" was addressed by Dr. Pearce Bailey, Dr. George J. Wright, Dr. T. H. Weisenberg, Dr. V. V. Anderson and Dr. Frank P. Norbury.

Sessions were also devoted to statistics and classification, social psychiatry and criminology, laboratory papers and clinical psychiatry. Round-table conferences were held on the subjects of administration, military matters, scientific investigation, occupational therapy and nursing.

THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE STUDY OF THE FEEBLEMINDED

The forty-third annual session of the American Association for the Study of the Feebleminded was held in Chicago, May 28-29. A few of the titles on the programme were as follows:

The Feebleminded and the War, George S. Bliss, M.D., Superintendent, Indiana School for Feebleminded Youth, Fort Wayne, Indiana.

Temperamental Variability in Feebleminded Delinquents, J. Harold Williams, Ph.D., Director of Research, Whittier State School, Whittier, California.

Are Morons the More Dangerous Defectives? J. B. Miner, Ph.D., Professor of Applied Psychology, Carnegie Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh, Pa.

The Problem of the Defective Delinquent, Guy G. Fernald, M.D., Director of Survey Maine Commission on Provision for the Feebleminded, Augusta, Maine.

The Care of the Defective Delinquent, Colonel C. B. Adams, St. Charles, Illinois.

Delinquency in its Relation to Mental Defect, William Healy, M.D., Director Judge Baker Foundation, Boston, Massachusetts.

Present Status, and Plans for the Future, of the Ohio Bureau of Juvenile Research, Henry Herbert Goddard, Ph.D., Director, Bureau of Juvenile Research, Ohio Board of Administration.

The Arrangement of Hypophrenias (Feeblemindedness) for Diagnosis Per Exclusioneum in Ordine, E. E. Southard, M.D., Department of Neuropathology, Harvard University, and Director of the Psychopathic Department of the Boston State Hospital, Boston, Massachusetts.

What Institutions for the Feebleminded Can Do for Returned Soldiers, Douglas A. Thom, M.D., Psychiatrist in Charge of War and Reconstruction Work, National Committee for Mental Hygiene, New York, N.Y.

Mental Defect as seen in Juvenile Court, Judge Arnold, of the Juvenile Branch of the Circuit Court of Cook County.

Defective Delinquency, Major Herman M. Alder, M.C., Army Disciplinary Barracks, Fort Leavenworth, Kansas.

The Need of State Surveys in Presenting the Problems of the Feebleminded, Frank P. Norbury, M.D., Norbury Sanitarium, Jacksonville, Illinois.

A State Programme for the Feebleminded, Walter E. Fernald, M.D., Superintendent, Massachusetts School for the Feebleminded, Waverley, Massachusetts.

Problems of the Feebleminded as Revealed by Systematic Examinations of Recruits and Army Experience, Lieut.-Colonel Frankwood E. Williams, M.R.C., Associate Medical Director, National Committee for Mental Hygiene.

Rehabilitation of the Mentally Defective—Illustrated, Charles Bernstein, M.D., Superintendent, New York State Custodial Asylum, Rome, New York.

The officers elected by the Association for the ensuing year are as follows: George E. Bliss, M.D., Superintendent, Indiana School for Feebleminded Youth, Fort Wayne, Indiana, President; H. A. Haines, M.D., Superintendent, Michigan Home and Training School, LaPeer, Michigan, Vice-President; J. M. Murdoch, M.D., Superintendent, State Institution for the Feebleminded of Western Pennsylvania, Polk, Pennsylvania, Secretary; F. Kuhlman, M.D., Ph.D., Director of Research, Minnesota School for the Feebleminded and Colony for Epileptics, Faribault, Minnesota, Assistant Secretary and Treasurer. The Association passed a resolution "That the President of the Association appoint a committee of five on classification and uniform statistics and invite the co-operation of the Bureau of Uniform Statistics of The National Committee for Mental Hygiene". The president appointed

the following committee: Walter E. Fernald, M.D., Waverley, Massachusetts; J. M. Murdoch, M.D., Polk, Pennsylvania; H. A. Haines, M.D., LaPeer, Michigan; F. Kuhlman, M.D., Faribault, Minnesota; George Mogridge, M.D., Glenwood, Iowa.

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE PROMOTION OF OCCUPATIONAL THERAPY

The third annual meeting of the National Society for the Promotion of Occupational Therapy was held in Chicago, September 8th to 11th, 1919. The attendance was large and great interest was taken in its sessions.

A business meeting was held Monday morning, September 8th, in Bowen Hall, at which reports of officers and committees were heard and acted upon. The following officers were also elected to serve for one year: President, Mrs. Eleanor Clarke Slagle, of the Henry Favill School of Occupations, Chicago; Vice-President, Dr. Herbert J. Hall, Devereux Mansion, Marblehead, Mass.; Treasurer, Miss Marion R. Taber, 348 Lexington Ave., New York City; Secretary, Mr. Louis J. Haas, Bloomingdale Hospital, White Plains, N.Y.; Member of Board of Management, Mrs. E. C. Slagle (to serve 5 years); Chairman of Committees: Research and Efficiency, Mr. Thos. B. Kidner, 348 Fourth Ave., N.Y.; Teaching Methods, Miss Elsey Taft, Walter Reed Hospital, Takoma Park, D.C.; Installations and Advice, Mrs. E. C. Slagle; Finance, Publicity and Publications, Dr. W. R. Dunton, Jr.; Admissions and Positions, Miss Susan C. Johnson.

In the afternoon the meeting was formally opened by addresses of welcome by Dr. H. Douglas Singer, Director of Illinois State Psychopathic Institute, and Miss Jane Addams, of Hull House. Response was made by the President, Dr. Dunton, after which the following papers were read.

Dr. G. Canby Robinson made an address upon The Use of Occupational Therapy in the Management and Treatment of Heart Disease. He showed that psychic rest is as important as physical rest and that this could be secured by properly applied occupation. He had also found that it is possible to test functional efficiency much better by observation of the patient in the shop than by the usual functional tests. It is possible to prevent cardiac repeaters.

Dr. Herbert J. Hall spoke on Grading and Systematizing the Therapeutic Occupations. He thought there is danger of too broad advancement and that the limitations and possibilities of occupational therapy should be carefully studied.

Dr. Arthur J. Jones, Professor of Secondary Education, University of Pennsylvania then made an address in which he emphasized that the

function of occupational therapy is the cure of the patient. Not vocational training as seems to be thought by some. The mental attitude of the patient is the most important thing to be considered. He then described the organization and work of the Philadelphia School of Occupational Therapy.

Major Reagan of Fort Sheridan then made an interesting address in which he paid a tribute to the occupational Aides.

The evening session was opened with several musical selections by a small orchestra, from Fort Sheridan, under the direction of Mrs. Geo. H. Stearns.

Dr. H. A. Pattison, Medical Field Secretary of the National Tuberculosis Association, then gave an address entitled Occupational Therapy and Vocational Guidance for the Tuberculous. This was an excellent presentation.

Mr. Sylvester then told of the workings of the Chicago branch of the Federal Board of Vocational Education. He was followed by Lieut. Col. H. M. Evans, Chief of Reconstruction Division, Surgeon-General's Office, who gave a Description of the Educational Division of Service, including Occupational Therapy, in Army Hospitals, and concluded by showing three reels of moving pictures taken in military hospitals.

Tuesday morning's session was called to order at 9.30 a.m. in Bowen Hall.

Dr. Nathaniel Allison, of Washington University, spoke on Observations on Occupational Therapy as Employed at the Walter Reed General Hospital, preceding this with some remarks on his experiences in France.

Dr. Dean Lewis read a paper on Occupational Therapy in Connection with Orthopedic Cases.

Miss Anna Barringer, Supervisor of Reconstruction Aides at Oteen, described The Duties of an Occupational Therapist in T. B. Hospitals. A knowledge of group work is necessary for the aide, as the treatment consists of a readjustment of the life to the disease, the aims being both psychological and physical.

Miss Harriet Robeson, Supervisor of Aides of the U.S. Public Health Service, gave an interesting talk of her experiences, showing a nice sense of humour.

Dr. Charles F. Reed, the Superintendent, made a graceful address of welcome, and was followed by Mr. A. L. Bowen, State Superintendent of Charities, who spoke on Occupational Therapy in Illinois State Hospitals.

Dr. Sidney I. Schwab, of Washington University Medical School, then made a delightful extemporaneous address upon his experiences with occupational therapy during his overseas service.

Mrs. Clyde M. Myers was then called upon to speak on The Occupational Therapist in Overseas Service, but stated that she could add nothing to what had been said by Dr. Schwab, except that part of their success was probably due to the fact that they had such a sympathetic and understanding medical director (Dr. Schwab).

Dr. Frankwood E. Williams, of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene then read a paper on The Demand for Occupational Therapists in State and Other Institutions, after which the meeting adjourned.

At 7.30 p.m. a banquet was served in the beautiful Florentine Room of the Congress Hotel.

Colonel Bispham, Commandant at Fort Sheridan, and Lieut.-Col. H. M. Evans spoke.

Mr. Everett S. Elwood, of New York State Hospitals Commission read his paper which had been postponed from the afternoon session.

Wednesday morning, September 10th, was spent in visits to the occupational departments of the Presbyterian and Cook County Hospitals. At the former a brief history of the department with a photograph of the shop was given to each visitor.

The 11.02 train was taken to Fort Sheridan and an inspection of the work in wards and shops was made. Miss Cuzzort, Head Aid made a brief address describing the work under her charge.

Shortly after 3 p.m. a return was made to Chicago.

Wednesday evening a meeting was held at the Henry Favill School, being called to order by Dr. Dunton at 8.25.

Miss Susan C. Johnson gave a talk on Practical Results of a Year's Work at Montefiore.

Miss Evelyn L. Collins spoke on Training Volunteer Workers to supplement the Activities of Trained Occupational Therapists.

Miss Alice Dean spoke of the work done in St. Louis, incidentally paying a tribute to the Favill School.

Mrs. F. W. Rockwell was called upon to speak of the work in Philadelphia, and invited the society to hold its next meeting in the Quaker City.

Miss Brainerd, of the Presbyterian Hospital of Chicago, then spoke of Occupational Therapy in that hospital.

Miss Brackett stated that a larger school is being started in Boston, at which hospital observation will begin with the course of study. She also made some amusing statements in regard to some of the pupil patients.

Miss Carter asked what hospital was used to which Miss Brackett replied the Homeopathic.

Miss Johnson then moved a rising vote of thanks to the retiring president which was given.

Dr. Dunton made thanks for the honour and for the co-operation which had been so heartily accorded him during his term of office. He then asked Miss Johnson to conduct Mrs. Slagle to the chair, and handed over to her the care and guidance of the society.

Mrs. Slagle thanked the members for the honour they had bestowed, and requested their co-operation.

Dr. Dunton moved a vote of thanks to all who had provided so well for the society's entertainment, to the Programme Committee, the Henry B. Favill School, Hull House, Chicago State Hospital, and to the authorities at Fort Sheridan. This being given, the meeting adjourned.

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